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ABSTRACT

The 11 articles in this monograph, selected from more than 100 presentations made at the National Conference on Transitional Services for Troubled Youth, examine the history, current status, best practices, and future needs of troubled youth who are returning from residential to community settings. The papers are the following: "Transitional Services in Youth Corrections: Current Issues and Prospects for the Future" (Schwartz); "Multidisciplinary Perspectives on the Transition of Troubled Youth to Community Settings: Results of a Delphi Survey" (Leone, Walter, Edgar); "Behavior Management Techniques Useful in Helping the Transition to School: Preparing Teachers to Handle Misbehavior" (Herr, Linn); "Collaboration and Cooperation: Key Elements in Bridging Transition Gaps for Adjudicated Youth" (Cook); "Deinstitutionalization of Youth in Trouble: Recent Trends and Policy Issues" (Lerman); "Youth in Transition--Two Perspectives" (Wolford, Janssen, Miller); "Support Program for Parents of Suspended Youth" (Smith); "Applicability of Behavior Rating Scales for Juvenile Correctional Settings" (Campbell, Bullock, Wilson); "Day Treatment Services" (Bowling, Hobbs); "Winners Circle: A Career Approach to Reaching Troubled Youth" (Spaniol, Cleberg); and "Results of a Nationwide Survey on the Characteristics of Transition Programs for Incarcerated Handicapped Youth" (Whittier, Sutton). An abstract precedes each monograph. (KC)

Transitional Services for Troubled Youth

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Transitional Services for Troubled Youth

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FORWARD

Bruce Wolford

Adaptations to change are difficult for most people and often there is a need for professional intervention. Perhaps no group of individuals is more deserving or in need of assistance during transition than those youth who are attempting to return from residential to community settings. The 11 articles in this monograph provide an examination of the history, current status, best practices and future needs in the area of transitional services for troubled youth.

This publication and the articles included in it were selected from over 100 presentations made at the National Conference on Transitional Services for Troubled Youth held in Lexington, Kentucky. The conference brought together over 600 juvenile services professionals from throughout the United States and Canada to examine the need for expanded transitional services. The conference was sponsored by the Kentucky Department for Social Services in conjunction with the Eastern Kentucky University Training Resource Center.

The authors who contributed manuscripts and the professionals who donated their time and talents to review and comment on their work are primarily responsible for this publication. Without the continuing commitment of the Kentucky Department for Social Services to improving services for troubled youth the conference and this monograph would never have been possible. Finally, I want to express my appreciation to the various staff members of the Training Resource Center who worked long and hard to make this publication a reality.

Transitional Services in Youth Corrections: Current Issues and Prospects for the Future

Ira M. Schwartz

Abstract

There is growing support nationally for the development of transition or aftercare services for delinquent youth confined or "placed" in residential settings. The growing support is largely due to the increased recognition of the impact of community, economic, peer, and familial factors on the process of reintegration. It is also based on the research suggesting that behavioral, educational, and treatment gains made during confinement or placement are often short lived or are quickly extinguished once a youth returns to his or her community.

This article explores some of the issues surrounding the development of transition or aftercare services for delinquent youth. In particular, this article examines some of the major hurdles that need to be overcome if transition or aftercare services are to become an integral and effective part of the juvenile corrections continuum of services.

GROWING SUPPORT FOR TRANSITION SERVICES

One of the major assumptions underlying the development of child care institutions was the belief that disturbed, delinquent, and abused or neglected children needed to be removed and insulated from the environments that produced them and inculcated with appropriate values and education. It was felt that it was too difficult and costly to try and alter the conditions in their families, schools, and communities. Therefore, these youth needed to be prepared to ". . . leave the programs appropriately immunized to survive the outside world" (Altschuler, 1984).

This thinking, which dominated the child caring institutional arena for the past half century, is now under serious attack. Child advocates, researchers, and prominent juvenile justice and child welfare professionals are now claiming that it was naive to assume that the child should be the sole or even the predominant focus of residential treatment interventions. They now maintain that reintegration must be a key and integral component of residential care and that interventions must be targeted towards families, peers, employers, schools, needed social services, health care, and the broader community.

For example, Jackson (1983) studied 314 youthful offenders who were paroled from the California Youth Authority (C.Y.A.) and randomly assigned to one of two groups. One group was retained on parole supervision and the other was formally discharged. After following the offenders for more than two years, Jackson found no significant differences with respect to the ". . . overall percentage arrested and convicted . . . between the two groups. Nor were there any differences in time to: offenses, number of arrests, quarterly percentage in custody, percentage arrested while correcting for the numbers at risk in the community, and overall time spent in custody in jail, C.Y.A., and adult prison combined" (Jackson, 1983). As a partial explanation for these findings Jackson concluded that "the argument that the (parole) officer can ameliorate the problems of criminogenic influences of peers, poverty, broken homes, and discrimination and overcome class and cultural differences existing between him and his charges with limited services and resources at his or her disposal can only be regarded as Utopian" (Jackson, 1983).

Researchers from Marquette University studied the effects of aftercare services provided to a group of delinquent boys who successfully completed treatment and were discharged from the St. Charles Boys Home in Milwaukee, Wisconsin between September, 1981 and October, 1984. They compared the effects with a similar group of youth discharged from the facility during the same period but who received no aftercare services. The aftercare services were provided for a two year period after the youth were released. During the first year aftercare workers were expected to contact the youth and their families at least once every two weeks. The workers assisted the youth in finding and maintaining employment and in completing their education. They also acted as advocates for the youth and their families (Kuchan, Kobliska, Reynolds, & Lauer, 1987). Although the aftercare services were supposed to be provided to the youth and their families, the primary focus and recipient of the services were the youth themselves.

While the sample in this study is small, only 42 youth, (and some may question the adequacy of services requiring client contact at least once every two weeks), the findings are instructive. The researchers found no significant differences in the success rates between the youth who received aftercare services and those who did not (Kuchan et al., 1987). Thirty-six of the youth, or 81 percent of the sample, were referred to court for illegal behavior within the two year follow-up period and half of the youth were reinstitutionalized (Kuchan et al., 1987).

These disappointing findings led the researchers to conclude

> ". . . it was naive of us in 1981 to expect that an aftercare program, directed primarily at shoring up the resources of a boy who has left residential placement, would be successful. Our present view is that if we had doubled or tripled the amount of time devoted to our target subject, the results probably would not have been much different. What we vaguely suspected, but failed to appreciate fully, was the power of a boy's family and community to wash

out most, if not all, the gains achieved during residential placement where continuous controls could be exercised over his affairs. Not only do community factors seem to neutralize effects of aftercare efforts, they may have much the same effect on many of the measurable gains acquired from residential treatment as well. If substantial changes have not taken place in factors such as family alcoholism, poor parenting skills, family poverty, etc., it is unlikely that recently acquired behaviors will withstand the assault on an environment that remains essentially pathogenic" (Kuchan et al., 1987).

Altschuler has studied transition of aftercare programs for serious juvenile offenders. He, perhaps better than anyone else to date, has conceptualized the model of transition services for delinquent youth that appears to be gaining in popularity. Altschuler, describes

"... reintegration as a process by which community contact—in its many forms and different degrees—is promoted, initiated, supported, and monitored. Accomplished through a diverse assortment of methods and steps, reintegrative programs (1) prepare youth for progressively increased responsibility and freedom in the community; (2) facilitate client-community interaction and involvement; (3) work with both the offender and targeted community support systems (families, peers, schools, employers, etc.) on qualities for constructive interaction and offender's successful community adjustment; (4) develop new resources and supports where needed; and (5) monitor and test the youths and the community on their ability to deal with each other productively" (Altschuler, 1984).

The proponents of reintegration or transition programs believe that these services are consistent with both public protection and justice system response goals. They believe they are compatible with these goals because they can include high levels of surveillance, increased restrictions on personal freedom, and individual accountability (Altschuler, 1984).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TRANSITIONAL SERVICES IN JUVENILE CORRECTIONS

The development of meaningful and effective transition services represents a major challenge to policymakers, child advocates, and juvenile justice professionals. Some of the major problems and issues that need to be addressed if these services are to become a reality follow.

The Current State of Transition Services in Juvenile Corrections

The model of transition or reintegration services that Altschuler and others envision is far removed from what exists in most jurisdictions. The reality is that "... 'aftercare' or 'follow-up' services have typically been undeveloped in juvenile offender programs, rarely amounting to anything more than control measures" (Fagan, Rudman, & Hartstone, 1984).

For example, youth released from Arizona's training schools are usually placed under close parole supervision. Many of these youth end up being charged with violations of conditions of their parole and subsequently returned to the institutions. Many of the violations are for minor and petty delinquency offenses; failing to show up for scheduled meetings with parole officers or "aftercare" workers, school truancy, and running away from home. In fact, the number of juvenile parole violations in Arizona has increased so much in recent years that it helped trigger a decision to increase the number of training school beds for both boys and girls.

A recent study in Hawaii revealed that juveniles committed for long periods of time to the state's Youth Correctional Facility receive no aftercare services at all (DeMuro, 1987). These youth are simply discharged and left to fend for themselves (as best they can).

In addition, very little is know about the extent and quality of transition services in the private sector. There are hundreds of private non-profit and profit making group homes, half-way houses, ranches, camps, and training schools in the United States. They generally provide services to delinquent youth under a contract with a public agency. Knowledgeable professionals in the field are of the opinion that a relatively small proportion of these agencies include appropriate aftercare services as an integral part of their programming. More often than not, the public agencies they contract with will not pay for transition services. If they do, they rarely make available enough funds to provide adequate aftercare programming.

Family Focused Transition Services

Involving and targeting services to families is increasingly being viewed as an essential element in the delivery of children's residential care. This is largely due to the poor results obtained from focusing services exclusively on children themselves and because of the research, scant as it may be, suggesting that "... family support is critical to a child's post-treatment adjustment" (Jenson & Whittaker, 1987).

While focusing on families may increase the success of residential care for children, policymakers and professionals should exercise caution in implementing transitional services and should be realistic about anticipated results. As stated earlier, there is limited research on the role and impact of families in influencing residential care outcomes. Also, "... the effectiveness of parental interventions in children's residential treatment remains unclear" (Jenson & Whittaker, 1987). There are many impediments to involving families, some of which are beyond the control or influence of transition or aftercare services. For example, poverty, homelessness, family disorganization, poor health, and legal difficulties are major barriers to involving families. Also, the fact that residential settings tend to be located in areas far removed from where the overwhelming majority of the children come from is another serious impediment (Jenson & Whittaker, 1987).

Shifts in Youth Corrections Policy

The past several decades have been characterized by large scale and dramatic shifts in juvenile justice policy. These changes can have a major impact on the development and implementation of youth correctional programs.

Currently, elected public officials and juvenile justice professionals in nearly half the states are in the process of re-examining and restructuring their youth corrections system. In general, they are considering and adopting policies similar to those implemented in such states as Kentucky, Massachusetts and Utah, states where officials have acted to restrict the use of secure institutional care and have greatly expanded the availability and diversity of community-based programs (Schwartz, 1988).

One of the results of this shift in policy is that the youth who end up being confined in secure care are likely to be violent offenders and youth with extensive delinquency histories. While these are precisely the youth who must be confined in order to protect the public, the prognosis that transitional services will be effective with this particular group of offenders must be viewed as being guarded at best. For example, a recent study of youth committed to the Utah Division of Youth Corrections revealed that "the secure care facility group had the highest proportion of youth arrested . . ." (Austin & Krisberg, 1987). The findings also indicated that these youth tended to recidivate more quickly than did the youth in the community programs.

Policies aimed at restricting the use of secure care usually result in more juveniles being placed in community-based programs. For many or most of these youth it means that they will be placed in some type of residential program during the time they are under the jurisdiction and control of a public correctional agency. Unless the current situation changes, it will also mean that the overwhelming majority of them will probably be placed in programs that offer little or nothing in the way of meaningful transition or aftercare services.

POLICY CONSIDERATIONS

If the recent history of juvenile justice is any indicator, there is reason to believe that significant changes in juvenile justice policies and practices will appear well into the foreseeable future. In fact, many researchers, academicians, child advocates, and prominent practitioners are already predicting that we are likely to see significant changes in juvenile justice and related child welfare statutes, a serious reexamination of the role and future of the juvenile court, and an overhauling of the youth detention and correctional systems in many state and local jurisdictions in the decades ahead.

The anticipated changes in the laws and in youth correctional systems will, undoubtedly, include increased support for aftercare and transitional programs. If these services are going to advance and become recognized as an effective juvenile crime control measure, there are a number of policy and program considerations that need to be addressed by elected public officials, juvenile justice professionals, child advocates, academicians, and public interest groups. For example:

1. Additional research is needed in order to determine the potential for transitional services. Some of the questions that need to be explored are:
   a. What models of transition services are likely to be most promising?
   b. Should aftercare or transition services be provided on a voluntary or involuntary basis and will it have an impact on results?
   c. Are there some transition service interventions that are likely to be more effective with certain types of juvenile offenders than others?
   d. What strategies and interventions are likely to be effective with families, peers, schools, employers, etc?
   e. What role can transition or aftercare workers really play with respect to mobilizing community resources (e.g., health care, housing, social services, etc.) for youth?
2. The development of meaningful transition services will require the infusion and/or redeployment of substantial amounts of fiscal resources. As stated earlier, aftercare or transition services in juvenile justice are underdeveloped with relatively little in the way of funds currently being allocated to such programs.
3. The development of transition services must take into account the growing need for semi-independent and independent living arrangements for youth. Many youth released from public and private juvenile corrections facilities cannot, for a variety of reasons, return to their own homes. For others, the idea of returning to live with their families may be considered to be highly undesirable but is often the only option available.
4. There are legal avenues and remedies that can be pursued on behalf of youth needing transition services. For example, advocates for juveniles seeking aftercare services can base a claim to educational services on state and federal constitutional provisions and, for some children, on the federal Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EAHCA).

Forty-eight states have constitutional provisions that require the development of a public school system (Morris, 1974). Courts have held that these provisions create a fundamental right to education (See *Serranto v. Priest*, 1976). As a result, states may not deny education to certain children unless the state can demonstrate a compelling state interest for its action (*Serranto v. Priest*, 1976). The federal constitution does not contain any similar provision establishing the right to education. However the United States Supreme Court has held that education is an important right, if not a fundamental one (see *Plyner v. Doe*, 1982; *Brown v. Board of Education*, 1954). Under this analysis, states must show at least a rational basis for denying education to certain children, and one could argue that states must demonstrate that the denial of education furthers an important governmental interest. In determining whether children have been denied equal protection of the laws under the Fourteenth Amendment, courts apply three different tests. If the denial

involves a fundamental right (e.g., freedom of speech) or a suspect classification (e.g., race), the the state must demonstrate that its action is necessary to further a compelling state interest. If there is no fundamental right or suspect class involved, then the state must show that its action bears a rational relationship to a legitimate public purpose. In some cases, the courts have created an intermediate standard of review. In these cases (e.g., classification based on sex and treatment of illegitimate children) courts require that states show their action furthers an important state of interest. It is difficult to imagine any state interest, let alone a compelling one, that would be furthered by denying an education to children recently released from state care. In fact, advocates should have little difficulty demonstrating that the provision of education to these children is in the state's interest.

The U.S. Supreme Court recently ruled that:

> ". . . public schools may not remove disruptive, emotionally disruptive, emotionally disturbed students from their classrooms for more than 10 days, even to protect others from physical assault, without the permission of the parents or a judge" (*New York Times*, 1988).

This decision is specifically aimed at protecting the rights of disabled or handicapped students by restricting the ability of educational officials from unilaterally and arbitrarily removing these youth from the public school setting, something that happens far too often to delinquent youth.

For children who qualify, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EAHCA) creates the right to a free and appropriate education. As a condition of receiving federal funds, states (the law contains specific requirements for state education agencies and for local education agencies) must provide a free and appropriate education to all handicapped children. The definition of "handicapped" is broad, and it covers children with learning disabilities that can be difficult for a layperson to detect. Research demonstrates that a high percentage of children in the juvenile justice system meet the definition of "handicapped" in the EAHCA (Barnett & Barnett, 1980; Post, 1981).

A free and appropriate education includes not only special education instruction but also related services that are necessary for the child to benefit from his or her education. Related services include such things as speech, audiology, occupational therapy, recreation, and psychological services as well as transportation. The education agency must develop an individualized education plan (IEP) for each eligible child that describes, among other things, present level of functioning, annual goals, and the specific services to be provided. In addition, states must mainstream special education pupils with the regular school population to the maximum extent appropriate. States have an affirmative responsibility to identify and evaluate children who may be eligible for special education, and states must have procedural protections including due process procedures for appealing decisions with which the parents of the student disagree.

Summary

Historically, transition and aftercare services have been treated as a "stepchild" in juvenile justice. There are signs that this situation may be changing. This development is encouraging and worthy of support. Great care should be taken to help insure that aftercare and transition services are developed and are effective and represent a wise use of youth correctional resources.

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Biography

Ira M. Schwartz is Professor and Director of the Center for the Study of Youth Policy at the University of Michigan's School of Social Work and Institute for Social Research. Prior to his appointment at the University of Michigan in September, 1987, Dr. Schwartz was a Senior Fellow at the Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs, University of Minnesota. Between 1979-81, he served as the Administrator of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, United States Department of Justice.

Alice Bussiere is a co-author.

Multidisciplinary Perspectives on the Transition of Troubled Youth to Community Settings: Results of a Delphi Survey

Peter E. Leone
Mary Bannon Walter
Eugene Edgar

Abstract

The transition of troubled youth from institutional to community settings can be a difficult, frustrating, and unrewarding process for parents, adolescents leaving confinement, and the agencies required to support or monitor behavior in the community. Understanding the movement from correctional settings to the community requires a broad, multidisciplinary perspective on the problems facing youth, the agencies and programs serving them, and the societal and cultural forces that shape our beliefs about deviant behavior.

A broad multidisciplinary perspective on the process of transition can help professionals understand how specific roles and activities can aid or impede the transition of troubled youth. After reviewing various perspectives on the process of transition and suggesting how professionals might plan transition activities, results from a Delphi Survey conducted with participants at the National Conference on Transitional Services for Troubled Youth in Lexington, Kentucky in May, 1988, are presented.

Successful transition involves adaptation by troubled youth to the changing demands of institutional and community settings. Data on the post-institutional adjustment of delinquents in school settings, suggests that many troubled youth do not adapt well to changes in their environments nor to the general expectations society has for law-abiding behavior. For example, Haberman and Quinn (1989) found that for 759 youths 3 years after release from correctional facilities, only 1.6 percent had completed high school, 1.3 percent were still in high school, and 29 percent had received a GED.

From an ecological perspective, adaptation is an attempt to achieve the 'best fit' between an individual and his or her environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Individuals, through social interactions with others, constantly renegotiate and adapt to changing demands and conditions of the environment. Many troubled youths, as suggested by their incarcerated or delinquent status, have achieved less than an optimal fit within family, school, and community environments and appear to be less adaptable than their nonincarcerated peers.

Multiple Perspectives on the Process of Transition

The process of transition for troubled youth can be understood from a number of different professional and analytical perspectives. In part, these perspectives or viewpoints shape the ways in which professionals and others view troubled youth and the interventions developed to promote successful transition.

Professional perspectives. Professional perspectives emanate from the roles of the various groups such as educators, social workers, probation officers, and psychologists who serve troubled youth. Educators, for example, may be most concerned with academic and vocational skills of youth as they prepare them to leave restrictive settings and reenter the community. Educators may also focus on the ability of the receiving community to provide appropriate educational services or employment to troubled youth.

While social workers may also be concerned with the academic or vocational skills of youths, their primary focus might be the ability of families to accept and support the return of their son or daughter. A related concern of these professionals would be the ability of the community to offer meaningful assistance to the families of those youths.

Probation officers would be interested in some of the same issues as educators and social workers, but in their role as agents of the juvenile court, they are most likely to be concerned with the ability of youths reentering the community to avoid law-breaking behavior. A related concern for probation officers and other juvenile justice workers may be whether youths can disassociate themselves from peers with whom they have engaged in delinquent acts and meet the terms of their probation. Primary concerns of psychologists or counselors might be the ability of troubled youths to cope with a range of problems including poorly developed interpersonal skills, negative feelings about being incarcerated, and limited school and employment opportunities.

While all professionals working with troubled youth attempt to promote successful transition of delinquents from correctional settings to the community, they may differ in the manner in which they provide services and understand the role of other agencies and professionals. Limited understanding of other professional roles will not facilitate interagency collaboration, the integration of services, nor the successful reintegration of youths into the community.

Analytical perspectives. Another way of thinking about the process of transition for troubled youth is to examine beliefs about delinquent behavior from various analytical perspectives. Differing beliefs typically involve issues of causality, responsibility and remediation of the problem; perspectives on these issues can involve a micro-, interactive, or macro-level of analysis (Everhart, 1987).

From a micro- or person-centered perspective of analysis, the focus is on maladaptive, rule-violating behavior exhibited by troubled youth. From this viewpoint, delinquents have not learned appropriate normative behavior in the community and need to learn adaptive, prosocial skills. Ultimately, from this micro-perspective, the responsibility for changing rests with the delinquent youth.

A second level of analysis focuses on the social interactions between troubled youth and others in their environments. From this social-ecological perspective, it is essential to view delinquent behavior in the contexts within which it occurs. Deviant behavior or delinquency occurs when there is an imbalance between youth and the social systems and institutions that affect them. A dynamic, ecological perspective places the onus for change on the troubled youth and the other members of his or her environment. This perspective suggests that although behavior exhibited by troubled youth may be learned, that behavior and the response to it by members of the adolescent's social network are maladaptive.

A third perspective on troubled youth involves a macro-level of analysis that includes examining the institutions, culture, and other societal forces that give meaning to daily events and shape behavior. From this viewpoint, delinquency is seen as a function of the roles that adolescents play within society and the larger purposes that delinquent behaviors serve. For some, acts of delinquent behavior illustrate inherent conflicts that exist among adolescents, families, schools, and society. Others from a macro-level point of view see delinquent behavior as symptomatic of the lack of challenging, meaningful roles that schools, families, and other institutions provide for adolescents.

Understanding these different perspectives has implications for those providing appropriate services and support for the transition of troubled youth to the community. From a micro- or person-centered perspective emerges a better understanding of specific difficulties experienced by adolescents and the importance of working collaboratively with others to provide appropriate services. For example, adolescents experiencing problems related to depression or substance abuse can be referred to services and groups that can address those needs. When services are not available, professionals can advocate and work for the provision of specific services. From a positive point of view, this person-centered perspective also suggests that youth with specific talents or skills be referred to appropriate vocational or training programs that capitalize on their abilities.

The ecological or interactive perspective is most valuable in helping to integrate services and resources available to youth. In particular, this point of view can help focus on social supports, community characteristics, and a youth's personal resources that are available to facilitate the process of transition. Understanding the importance of achieving a 'best fit' between youth and the community and helping youth develop or utilize support networks can promote successful transition. Finally, from a macro or systems perspective, an understanding of how professional roles and institutional forces support or inhibit successful transition of youth to community settings can suggest how to remove institutional barriers that interfere with successful transitioning.

The Delphi Survey

In an attempt to move beyond theoretical issues just discussed, the authors conducted a Delphi Survey (Dalkey, 1969) to determine the transition priorities among professionals working in juvenile corrections and related fields. The purpose of the survey was to develop field-based knowledge concerning transition priorities, direction of change related to transition services, and training needs for professionals providing transition services.

Sample & Procedure

Approximately 500 attendees at the May, 1988 National Conference on Transitional Services for Troubled Youth held in Lexington, Kentucky formed the sampling population for the preliminary round of the Delphi Survey. The completed Survey I form was returned by 158 professionals from correctional (14.6 percent), educational (23.4 percent), social services (29.1 percent) and other (33 percent) agencies. Following data tabulation, all respondents received by mail (a) a statistical summary of results from Survey I, (b) a letter requesting their participation in round two of data collection, and (c) a copy of Survey II with a return mailer. A total of 98 individuals employed by correctional (16.3 percent), educational (26.5 percent), social service (24.5 percent), and other (32.6 percent) agencies responded to Survey II.

Instrument Development

Survey I included 5 forced choice items on transition priorities for which respondents described the level of priority on a Likert Scale. An additional 6 items (also using a Likert Model) were presented in an open end format but within structured categories of (a) direction of change for transition services and (b) training needs related to transition. The 5 transition priority items were rated by participants as of at least moderate concern to them. Two correctional special education researchers reviewed the additional responses of the 158 Survey I participants and through categorization reduced the responses to 27 items. The final instrument developed for Survey II included 32 items presented in Likert format (1 = not a priority to 4 = high priority) and distributed over the originally established categories, (a) transition priorities, (b) direction of change related to transition, and (c) training needs related to transition. A transition specialist reviewed the final survey form.

Analysis and Findings

Data from Survey II were coded and analyzed using an SPSS-X format. A statistical program for frequencies yielded descriptive data for the entire sample (N=98) and for subsamples determined by the major employment agency categories. Average ratings across respondents fell in the low-moderate to high-moderate range for all Survey II questions. In the area of transition priorities (see Table I) all respondent groups identified a moderately high need for increased quantity and quality of appropriate services and for the development of treatment procedures, assessment, instruction and techniques. The provision of a continuum of services evoked slightly less intense but consistent endorsement across employment groups. Variability across respondent groups was generally unremarkable except in the priority rating of the provision of treatment to sex offenders. Educational employees rated the provision of this service as a relatively low priority in contrast to their correctional counterparts who placed it in the moderate to high range.

Table 1

Means (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Transition Priorities Identified by Various Respondent Groups

Variable	Employment Agency			
	Corrections[a]	Education[b]	Social Services[c]	Other[d,e]
Treatment procedures, assessment, instruction and techniques				
M	3.75	3.69	3.54	3.47
SD	0.45	0.55	0.66	0.62
Planning Time				
M	2.75	3.23	2.83	2.94
SD	0.78	0.82	0.76	0.80
Awareness of other agency programs				
M	2.88	3.27	3.08	3.22
SD	0.62	0.72	0.72	0.66
Appropriate services				
M	3.63	3.62	3.67	3.53
SD	0.62	0.50	0.57	0.67
Procedures for interagency planning				
M	2.75	3.00	2.71	3.00
SD	0.68	0.82	0.75	0.76
Adequate support for planning				
M	3.44	3.24	3.29	3.31
SD	0.63	0.72	0.69	0.74
Services to families of youth				
M	2.94	2.88	3.67	3.34
SD	1.06	0.88	0.57	0.83
A continuum of services				
M	3.19	3.46	3.58	3.53
SD	0.98	0.72	0.65	0.76
Providing treatment to sex offenders				
M	3.25	2.24	2.88	2.53
SD	0.68	0.93	1.08	1.02
Follow-up data for research & evaluation				
M	2.67	2.92	2.67	3.03
SD	0.82	0.57	0.96	0.93

Inspection of average ratings across employment groups indicates that most respondents perceived each of the suggested directions of change within correctional institutions (see Table 2), within communities (see Table 3), and among agencies (see Table 4) as being of moderate priority. Employment group ratings of areas for change within correctional institutions reflected some variability. Highest priority was assigned by educators to the need for correctional institutions to improve liaison with the community. This status was assigned by correctional workers to increasing the number of treatment options and by social service employees to increasing institutions' involvement with communities and families. By contrast, respondent groups acted in unison in identifying the need for an increased range of community placement options as the highest priority for change within communities. Similarly, their ratings of directions for change among agencies pointed to a common concern about maintaining active working relationships.

Respondent groups assigned moderately high priority to all suggested training needs (see Table 5) in the area of transition. The highest priority level was assigned by correctional, educational and social services workers individually to the need for training in techniques for teaching decision making and problem solving skills to youth.

Discussion

The disciplinary and analytical perspectives discussed at the beginning of the paper provide insight into some major differences in the perspectives of those concerned with the successful transition of troubled youth from institutions to community-based settings. The results of the Delphi Survey suggest that in spite of differences in professional perspectives, there was some agreement among respondents concerning transition priorities, the direction of needed change, and training needs.

Table 2

Means (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Direction of Change within Correctional Institutions Identified by Various Respondent Groups

	Employment Agency			
Variable	Corrections[a]	Education[b]	Social Services[c]	Other[d,e]
Improving staff training experiences				
M	3.20	3.13	3.33	3.41
SD	0.94	0.68	0.97	0.73
Improving liaison with community				
M	3.13	3.42	3.33	3.48
SD	0.92	0.78	0.73	0.74
Improving staff salaries				
M	2.53	2.75	3.24	2.90
SD	0.99	0.94	1.04	1.01
Hiring more staff				
M	2.47	2.79	3.00	2.86
SD	0.92	0.98	1.14	0.95
Increasing the number of treatment options				
M	3.60	3.29	3.43	3.62
SD	0.83	0.91	0.93	0.86
Increasing institutions' involvement with communities & families				
M	3.33	3.29	3.50	3.38
SD	0.98	0.86	0.67	0.90

Table 3

Means (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Direction of Change within Communities Identified by Various Respondent Groups

Variable	Corrections[a]	Employment Agency Education[b]	Social Services[c]	Other[d,e]
Improving interagency collaboration				
M	3.40	3.60	3.21	3.50
SD	0.63	0.58	0.83	0.67
Increasing salaries of service providers				
M	2.56	2.64	2.88	2.66
SD	0.81	1.00	1.04	0.87
Improving staff to client ratio in community services				
M	2.69	3.12	3.00	3.09
SD	0.87	0.93	0.83	0.93
Increasing range of community placement options				
M	3.56	3.72	3.67	3.75
SD	0.81	0.61	0.70	0.51
Improving treatment facilities				
M	3.56	3.44	3.38	3.19
SD	0.81	0.77	0.82	1.00

Table 4

Means (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Direction of Change in Interagency Collaboration Identified by Various Respondent Groups

Variable	Corrections[a]	Employment Agency Education[b]	Social Services[c]	Other[d,e]
Developing agreements and procedures				
M	2.92	3.32	3.10	3.23
SD	0.67	0.95	0.91	0.86
Maintaining active working relationships				
M	3.50	3.63	3.48	3.50
SD	0.52	0.58	0.59	0.67
Sharing resources				
M	3.36	3.57	3.39	3.48
SD	0.63	0.51	0.66	0.64

Table 5

Means (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Training Needs Identified by Various Respondent Groups

Variable	Employment Agency			
	Corrections[a]	Education[b]	Social Services[c]	Other[d,e]
Techniques for teaching independent living and vocational skills to youth				
M	3.50	3.68	3.17	3.13
SD	0.82	0.48	0.65	0.91
Techniques for managing severely behaviorally disordered youth				
M	3.31	3.39	3.29	3.13
SD	0.95	0.80	0.91	1.12
Techniques for teaching decision making and problem solving skills to youth				
M	3.63	3.81	3.50	3.41
SD	0.81	0.40	0.51	0.80
Developing awareness of availability and efficacy of other programs				
M	3.19	3.28	3.21	3.44
SD	0.66	0.61	0.66	0.56
Developing an in-depth knowledge of treatment programs for special populations				
M	3.25	3.12	3.04	3.16
SD	0.78	0.82	0.75	0.86
Techniques for negotiating interagency relationships				
M	2.88	3.31	3.21	3.36
SD	0.81	0.79	0.66	0.71
Techniques for cooperative improvement of interagency communication				
M	2.88	3.54	3.33	3.45
SD	0.50	0.58	0.70	0.68

[a]Due to missing data n for individual variables ranges from 12 to 16.
[b]Due to missing data n for individual variables ranges from 21 to 26.
[c]Due to missing data n for individual variables ranges from 20 to 24.
[d]Employment agencies include courts, institutions of higher learning and others.
[e]Due to missing data n for individual variables ranges from 26 to 32.

With regard to transition priorities, most respondents felt there was a need to improve the number of services available and the quality of specific services to support transition of troubled youth. Specifically, treatment procedures, assessment, instruction, and techniques were all rated highly as transition priorities by the respondents. Provision of services to sex offenders was a relatively high priority for corrections professionals but not for other groups.

Variability among the respondent groups concerning the direction of change for transition services within correctional institutions, reflects in part the perspectives discussed earlier. Correctional staff rated increasing treatment options as the highest priority, educators viewed improving community liaison activities, and social service staff saw increasing involvement with communities and families as needed changes within correctional institutions.

In terms of necessary change within communities, the various respondent groups were nearly unanimous in rating increasing the range of placement options as a top priority. Similarly, 'maintaining active working relationships' was identified as the most highly rated item in the area of interagency collaboration. Interestingly, 'developing agreements and procedures,' a traditional response to the problem of lack of coordination among agencies, was ranked lowest of the three items in this area by corrections, education, and social services professionals. This rating may reflect past experiences of respondents with interagency agreements that look good on paper but do not achieve their intended results.

Promoting Successful Transition of Troubled Youth

The data presented here suggests that successful transition of troubled youth from institutions and restrictive settings needs to involve changes in client-centered activities as well as changes on a macro or institutional level. Improving the quality and range of assessment and treatment services to support the transition of troubled youth appears to be essential. On a systemic level, developing more adequate placement options in the community is a critical step in ensuring that youth leaving institutions have adequate housing and habilitation services.

More than 500,000 youth each year come in contact with the juvenile justice system (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1984); most of those youth fail to make successful adjustment to the community. Providing appropriate post incarceration programs for youth requires the collaboration of many agencies. No one agency can ever hope to respond to the myriad needs of this population. The problems facing our society demand that appropriate services and interagency collaborative efforts be made available to troubled youth. For far too long this segment of our population has been ignored.

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Biography

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Behavior Management Techniques Useful In Helping the Transition to School: Preparing Teachers to Handle Misbehavior

David E. Herr
Reid J. Linn

Abstract

In the interface between regular, special and correctional education, current referral rates to specialized educational programs and the perceived inability of educators to handle misbehaviors suggests that behavior management training should focus on general techniques that work with most students, even special needs (handicapped/adjudicated) youth. Preparing individuals to handle the misbehavior of students should be a process that merges all disciplines into coursework that emphasizes sequentially: (a) preventative planning techniques, (b) anticipatory response techniques, and (c) systematic intervention techniques. This article briefly reviews the state of behavior management training and focuses on techniques with proven effectiveness in controlling behavior in both public schools and institutions. Preventative planning techniques receive the most emphasis since most misbehavior in many settings can be prevented from occurring in the first place and because they are the easiest to teach others to use.

Introduction

Educators of troubled or adjudicated youth, who have been committed to residential or correctional facilities, face many challenges in their efforts to transition their students back into less restrictive educational settings. In that regard, there is little question that misbehavior is one of the most serious problems confronting the successful transition of these youth back into the public schools. From the educator's perspective, handling misbehavior in the classroom is an area of competence which is essential to all teachers. Consequently, one would expect that all teachers typically receive substantial preservice training in techniques used in dealing with behavior problems. However, the opposite appears to be true; most teachers receive very little training in this essential skill area (Herr & Linn, 1988). No wonder correctional and special educators rank classroom management skills as high priorities for both preservice and inservice training (Leone, 1986).

It is perhaps due to the limited attention given to this important area of teacher preparation that a number of serious results occur. The inability to effectively manage misbehavior has been identified as one of the major reasons why teachers quit teaching, the top reason why teachers are fired, and one of the major causes of teacher "burn out".

In the interface between correctional, regular and special education, two serious problems related to misbehavior often surface. First, many regular educators have little or no training in dealing with behavior problems. Students who misbehave, are more likely to be referred to special education than those who do not (Herr & Linn, 1988; Heward & Orlansky, 1988; Kauffman, 1989). Additionally, public school teachers who feel prepared in this competency area are frequently reluctant to accept "mainstreamed" students in their classroom (Campbell, Dobson, & Bost, 1985).

A second problem is related to the training of correctional and special educators. Herr and Linn (1988) point out that while most receive training in "systematic" approaches to discipline (e.g., behavior modification), few have received training in techniques for teaching these skills to others; a competency area important in successful mainstreaming. In addition, approaches necessary in either the correctional facility or the special classroom are not necessarily the most suitable for the regular classroom.

Effective Behavior Managers

Given that preservice training typically offers no more than a cursory overview of management systems with little or no directed practical application experiences involved, it should be no surprise that the predominant discipline techniques used by educators include scolding, threatening, yelling, and punishing, all of which tend to be ineffective and frequently serve to increase discipline and other school problems. Effective teachers (regular, special, and correctional educators) consistently use three types of behavior management techniques. Effective behavior managers:

1) obviate most behaviors by planning ahead and using Preventative Planning Techniques;
2) look for signs of upcoming misbehavior and do something about it before it worsens (they use Anticipatory Response Techniques); and
3) are prepared to back up their Preventative Planning and Anticipatory Response Techniques with pre-planned follow-up procedures (they use Systematic Intervention Techniques).

Teacher preparation programs should teach behavioral techniques emphasizing their application in a logical, systematic, step-by-step progression aimed at preventing misbehavior.

An Ounce of Prevention

The first question most teachers ask a behavioral consultant is something like "Well what do I do when Mike misbehaves?" This mindset suggests a belief in a cure, some sort of magic to straighten a student out. But there are no panaceas or "magic dust". In fact, it is the

continued professional focus on the reinforcement process contingencies, that forever narrows educators' attention to behavioral interventions which are applied after the student misbehaves. In contrast, most of the focus should be on ways to prevent behavior problems from occurring in the first place. Indeed, the question teachers should ask is "Well what can I do before Mike misbehaves?"

Herr and Linn (1988) insist that most misbehavior in most settings need not occur at all. While the professional literature is replete with systematic intervention techniques such as behavior modification, Reality Therapy or Assertive Discipline, the real key to classroom management is the use of Preventative Planning Techniques. Productive teachers are able to maintain high class interest, monitor several simultaneous activities, and effectively communicate behavioral expectations. They develop a range of alternative management strategies/techniques and select those which seem likely to be effective relative to the child having difficulty. Several successful alternatives are described, though many alternatives are possible:

1. **Attention and Approval—The Magic Potion:** Most misbehavior is attention-seeking behavior. Unfortunately, there is no "MAGIC DUST" to sprinkle on disruptive students to make them respond appropriately. However, if students misbehave to get attention, why not give them attention so they do not have to misbehave to earn it? The first step in dealing with a child who exhibits disturbing behavior is to provide him with attention (i.e., noticing his presence) and approval (i.e., showing a favorable attitude) a few seconds each day. Such teacher behaviors as a smile, nod, or a short phrase (e.g., "Hi, how are you?" or "That's great!") impart attention and approval and may reduce behavior problems in even the worst student.

2. **Teacher Movement:** Some students respond more appropriately when they are close to the teacher. Many teachers, though, tend to spend a majority of their time either behind their desk or lecturn, or standing in front of the chalkboard. Therefore, it is impossible to place all students near the teacher all of the time. Due to the relationship which exists between student behavior and teacher proximity, effective teachers move frequently throughout the room.

3. **Rules—The Foundation:** Rules are an important part of any effective management system. Class rules should stem from those behaviors that the teacher finds disturbing or which interfere with the class. In general, no more than five rules should be developed and all should be stated positively. Seeking student input in establishing the rules, posting the rules, and issuing copies of the rules to the students and their parents fosters greater investment and adherence to them.

4. **Instructional Planning:** Teachers must compete for student attention; boredom is the number one enemy of class discipline. Effective teachers plan activities that capture the attention of their students and additionally plan activities for the entire educational period as scheduled. Preparation for the day's activities should be completed before the day begins. Furthermore, success in managing the unexpected often lies in prior preparation of interventions that may be used spontaneously.

5. **Modeling:** The most important variable operating in any classroom is the teacher and the behavior he/she models for the class. "Do as I say, not as I do" is a commonly used technique that just does not work. Rules are important but we must not forget that we teach by example.

6. **Catch 'Em Being Good:** Effective behavior managers are very directive and they let their students know the rules. They impose logical consequences as necessary, but they expend most of their time and energy on "catching students who follow the rules". The key here is to "praise them to success".

Anticipatory Response Techniques

While Preventative Planning Techniques will obviate most misbehavior, problems do occur in even the best classrooms. When such planning fails, a teacher should use anticipatory response techniques. These techniques are used when a teacher "senses" that misbehavior is about to occur or has just started.

Some anticipatory response techniques that can be used are:

1. **Proximity Control:** Moving near a student (who is about to misbehave) in a nonthreatening manner.

2. **Vicarious A & A:** Giving attention and approval to a student who is following the rule that the misbehaving student is breaking; for example, calling on a student who is raising his hand to get permission to talk and/or praising this student for raising his hand. This is done when another student is calling out without permission.

3. **Signal Interference:** Using gestures (e.g., shaking head "no") to let the misbehaving student know that you know he/she is misbehaving.

4. **Voice Control:** Use of the teacher's voice as a means of controlling behavior. Often, a decrease in the volume can be used to quiet down a student or even an entire class. Animation of voice, likewise, can be used to enhance attention to task.

5. **Rule Reminder:** When a student is becoming unruly, a brief reminder about the classroom rule can often redirect behavior.

6. **Probing:** The simple question "What are you doing?" is frequently all that is necessary to stop misbehavior.

Assertiveness, Logical Consequences, and Conferencing

When anticipatory response techniques do not work, the next two steps focus on those strategies most often related to the management of misbehavior, being assertive and using logical consequences. In being assertive, the teacher should approach the student, make eye contact, and state clearly and firmly (not using a loud voice) precisely what is expected of the student. Effective teachers also use accompanying gestures to increase the emphasis that "I MEAN BUSINESS!"

If the student does not respond to the teacher's assertiveness, he/she should then be given a choice between (a) listening to the teacher or (b) choosing a logical consequence which has been predetermined by the teacher and communicated to the student in advance. Of course, when a specific logical consequence does not work in a reasonable period of time (three to four tries), the teacher should change the consequence to one that is more severe. Because the focus of this article is on preventative techniques, no further attention will be given here to the application of logical consequences. The professional literature is already rather comprehensive in the discussion of such contingency-based systematic approaches.

An often forgotten but extremely valuable last step in an overall approach is conferencing. After the consequence has been applied, it is vitally important that the teacher have a conference with the student. Among the many purposes of this conference are (a) to let the student know that the teacher still "cares" about him (e.g., "I really like you, but . . ."), (b) to let the student know that his behavior was inappropriate, and (c) to inform the student that his behavior will not be tolerated any more and that the consequence (or another) will be imposed each time in the future that the misbehavior occurs.

Conclusion

Management of classroom misbehavior is one area that has received attention from reseachers across virtually every discipline in education. Its importance will never be denied as long as teachers, administrators, and parents are surveyed soliciting their appraisal of America's educational programs. It is indeed surprising then, that too little attention is devoted to student and classroom management techniques (by course) in many teacher preparation programs. In the interface between regular, special, and correctional education, current referral rates to specialized educational programs and the perceived inability of educators to handle misbehavior indicates that preservice management training should focus on general (common) management techniques that work with most students, even special needs (handicapped/adjudicated) students. More specifically, preparing educators to handle misbehavior of special needs individuals should be a process which merges all preservice education majors into behavior management coursework emphasizing the principles of preventative planning techniques, anticipatory response techniques, and systematic intervention techniques. Additional field-experience should be offered either concurrently or subsequent to instruction in these management techniques to allow for sufficient guided practice in their application. This combined instruction is viewed as a proactive effort designed to enhance the chances that troubled students can return to and remain in the mainstream.

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Biography

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Collaboration and Cooperation: Key Elements in Bridging Transition Gaps for Adjudicated Youth

Lynda A. Cook

Abstract

Rather than relying on legislative mandate and regulation to facilitate transition planning for youthful offenders, professionals concerned with this population must invest in collaboration and cooperation. Collaborative relationships offer effective strategies for building a community of concern to help this population bridge the gaps between institutional placement and community life. The challenge for all concerned with transition planning is to decide whether or not sufficient time, energy and resources will be devoted to developing these relationships. Supportive, involved and informed cooperation is the best insurance that opportunities will exist to maximize youthful offenders' full potential.

Introduction

Youthful offenders face a variety of problems in making transitions from institutional placements to life in communities. One major problem may be that these youth frequently return to communities, schools and employers that may not be receptive or prepared to provide appropriate, supportive programs (Jengeleski, 1984). The youth also face numerous problems external to school or work settings, such as finding work. Factors that must be considered by any youth in finding employment include the general economic climate, the number of people looking for employment, and whether or not the youth holds a marketable skill (Phelps, Chaplin and Kelly, 1987). In addition to these factors, youthful offenders face the stigma of having been adjudicated.

Transition programs must be established, and alternative education and employment programs in the communities contacted to make re-entry easier for this population. This is not an easy task. In addition to the fact that numerous agencies are involved, appropriate programs frequently do not exist to receive these youth whose needs may be beyond the capabilities of existing programs. Collaborative relationships offer one strategy for building a community of concern to help adjudicated youth bridge the gaps between institutional placement and community life.

Understanding the meaning of transition is a prerequisite to developing collaborative relationships. In 1984, the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS) in the United States Department of Education established a national priority to improve the transition from school to working life for all individuals with disabilities. In defining transition as the period including high school, the point of graduation, post-secondary education, and initial years in employment, OSERS stressed that youth with disabilities frequently experience even more difficulties than people who do not have disabilities (Will, 1984). This OSERS concept of transition extends beyond traditional notions of service coordination to address the quality and appropriateness of programming. This article extends the concept of transition as defined by OSERS to include youth returning from institutional placements to community life. Even though all of the youth certainly are not handicapped, they experience constraints equally as great as those experienced by disabled youth who move from relatively organized school structures to much less organized community configurations.

It is imperative for families, correctional staff and community professionals to work closely in the process of planning programs, including job training, to ensure that these youth are well prepared to enter the work force or pursue further education. The task for those concerned with a continuum of programming for adjudicated youth is to decide to invest the time and resources necessary for helping adjudicated youth make successful transitions.

Addressing the Problem

Two perspectives provide a basis for addressing the complicated array of problems relating to the transition needs of adjudicated youth: (1) characteristics of the population and related transition needs; and (2) characteristics of the systems involved in assisting with transition.

Characteristics of the Population

The transition needs of this population have been known for over a decade. Some of these needs include: occupational training and placement, education, financial help, counseling, social-recreational outlets, family relationships, living arrangements, alcohol and drug control, medical attention, and legal help. Correctional facilities and local agencies obviously must work together to develop re-entry plans that address these varied needs.

Even a cursory review of the literature related to transition reveals that only a small percentage of youth who have been incarcerated actually complete high school after they return to their communities. One three-year study involving more than 700 youth (Haberman and

Quinn, 1986) concluded that fewer than two percent graduated from high school after returning to their communities. Only 40 percent earned GEDs, while the remaining students dropped out of school.

The January, 1987 issue of Phi Delta Kappan journal, devoted entirely to our country's dropout problems, offers insight into these disheartening figures. After synthesizing numerous studies, Hahn (1987) concluded that even though enough is known about the problem to take action, changes have not been made and the dropout rate continues to grow. Hahn's list of factors relating to potential dropouts certainly has implications for the transition needs of the juvenile offender population:

1. One third of all high school students are behind in grade placement by one year, another five percent by two years. Over age students, even if they read at higher levels than normal age peers, are seven to ten percent more likely to drop out of school.

2. Youth who demonstrate low academic performance and who have low standardized test scores in basic skills (the bottom 20 percent) are at least 14 times more likely to drop out.

3. Many potential dropouts dislike school and are frequently suspended or placed in detention. The Children's Defense Fund states that at least 25 percent of all dropouts had been suspended before they left school, and that another 20 percent had been designated as "behavior problems" by their teachers.

4. Students who drop out of high school are three times more likely than those who graduate to come from families that receive welfare.

5. Undiagnosed learning disabilities and emotional problems also contribute to the dropout rate. Students with disabilities who are not identified and treated, blame themselves for their inability to function.

In discussing policies and programs for potential dropouts, Mizell (1986) refers to students who encounter legal difficulties as at risk youth with special needs. The needs of these youth tend not to be met in schools as they currently are organized. This group of youth is so affected by compelling circumstances external to schools that it is difficult for them to fit into school routines. Mizell further reports that youth who return from adjudication tend to be stigmatized by other youth and consequently have difficulty becoming part of school communities.

Characteristics of the System

Even though juvenile offenders' education and other transition needs are well-documented, they have not been adequately addressed. One major reason for this neglect may be the numerous and disjointed systems currently involved in transition processes. Despite the fact that cooperative interagency planning increases the possibility that a student will remain in school following release from correctional placement, schools and other public agencies frequently are not prepared to work together to plan programs. Recent years have witnessed a proliferation of programs designed to serve problem youth. In many cases, these programs have been targeted by specific federal or state funding categories and have not resulted from an assessment of local community needs. The result has been the current multiplicity of programs competing for limited resources, the creation of a confusing revolving door effect for clients seeking services, a limited potential for the provision and coordination of a proper continuum programming, and the inability to serve multiple client and family needs.

In many states, several agencies and different branches and levels of government are involved in the juvenile justice system (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 1983). Limited and inconsistent communication and coordination often exist among these various entities. This lack of coordination often results in a fragmented system of service delivery that makes it almost impossible to provide a continuous program for youthful offenders. What exists is not a system or network, but rather a multi-level maze that is difficult to access, comprehend, and deal with. Human problems, however, are multifaceted in nature and require a coordinated and holistic approach to service delivery.

The Meaning of Collaboration and Cooperation

Providing a coordinated continuum of services to assist adjudicated youth make transitions from correctional facilities to communities can only be accomplished through interagency collaboration and cooperation. Professionals working with adjudicated youth must look beyond their own agencies to potential resources in other agencies if they wish to meet the full range of client needs.

One synthesis of literature relating to collaboration (Hord, 1986) concludes that even though both collaboration and cooperation are valued models, each has a distinctly different operational process, serves a unique purpose, and yields a different return. More time is required for collaboration than for cooperation, since activities are shared rather than allowed. This perspective supports Hoyt's (1983) earlier assertion that collaboration implies shared responsibility and authority for basic policy and decision-making, while cooperation assumes that at least two parties, each with separate and autonomous programs, agree to work together in making all programs more successful. Appley and Winder (1977) clarify this definition in stating that collaboration involves individuals within groups who, as a matter of choice, share mutual aspirations and a common conceptual framework.

Collaboration and cooperation as used in this paper draw from the previous definitions in subscribing to the following meanings. Cooperation results when two individuals or organizations reach some mutual agreement, but their work together does not progress beyond this level. Collaboration, on the other hand, derives from

a model of joint planning, joint implementation, and joint evaluation between individuals or organizations. Cooperative relationships obviously must exist before collaborative processes can develop.

Establishing Collaborative Relationships

No single model exists for developing effective collaborative relationships. A model proven to be effective in one setting cannot be transplanted to another setting and expected to have the same degree of effectiveness. Success of collaborative relationships and projects ultimately depends on situational variables and commitment.

Organizations must meet several conditions before entering into collaborative relationships. Real dissatisfaction with status quo must exist in order to mobilize energy toward change, and at least one organizational leader should have an image of the desired state (Beckhard, 1975). Schermerhorn (1975), in reviewing motivators that influence interorganizational cooperation, stresses that "organizations will seek out or be receptive to interorganizational cooperation when faced with situations of resource scarcity or performance distress...or when a powerful extraorganizational force demands this activity."

A second prerequisite to developing collaborative relationships involves identifying all stakeholders: correctional agencies, public and court schools, employers, political entities, social service and health agencies, client advocacy organizations, courts, parole and law enforcement groups, victims' groups, organized labor and private industry. External as well as internal networks must be identified. External networks consist of inter-county, state, regional, and national groups. Initial organization for networking should consider joining with those whose goals are similar.

Lieberman (1986) offers additional guidelines and cautions for developing effective collaborative relationships:

1. Existing organizational structures should be used. A small core of committed and capable people should actually work on initial collaborative efforts.
2. Sufficient time should be allotted for collaborative efforts. Although significant energy is expended in working together and conflict is inevitable; collaborative work has the potential for productive learning.
3. Although long range goals must be kept in mind, activities rather than complex goals initially should propel the collaborative effort. Large, superordinate goals for collaboration become clearer after people have worked together. Because collaboration demands an understanding of complex social organizations shaped by the realities of specific contexts, ambiguity and flexibility more aptly describe collaboration than certainty and rigidity.
4. People participate in collaborative work for different reasons.
5. The development of any collaborative process should recognize that shared experiences over time build mutual trust, respect, risk-taking, and commitment.

Elements of Effective Collaborative Relationships

Despite their dependence on situational variables, effective collaborative processes have common planning elements (Ballantyne, 1985; Johnson, Brunicks, & Thurlow, 1987; Mizell, 1986).

1. Parties involved in effective collaborative efforts share a philosophical stance of the endeavor.
2. Written guidelines are developed that delineate roles and responsibilities, sharing of resources and facilities, expenditure of funds, and maintenance of interagency agreements. The need for written interagency agreements becomes greater as programs become larger and more widespread. Care must be exercised, however, to maintain or adopt approaches which preserve local initiative and flexibility.
3. Effective collaborative relationships are voluntary.
4. Provisions must be made for cross-agency in-service training.
5. Each agency involved in a collaborative effort should assign a lead person.

One analytical framework for considering the effectiveness of interorganizational relations (Intriligator, 1983) consists of four groups of effectiveness indicators: (1) prior organizational activities should have addressed resources, the need for cooperative environments, and goal congruence between members and other organizations; (2) organizations should address structural characteristics such as coordinating mechanisms, demographic conditions, and contribution of resources; (3) relational characteristics should support involvement of individuals in multiple complex organizational ties; and, (4) process characteristics, such as the degree of formality required for collaboration, must be addressed.

The most important aspect of collaborative relationships, is people. People, not agencies, cooperate. As people come to realize that they have some control over a program's operation, they become more supportive, financially and otherwise. Although administrative support is essential to any venture, and federal and state-level leadership is important, the bottom line will be variety and creativity of the people at the local levels.

Benefits and Perils of Collaborative Processes

Collaborative processes offer numerous benefits to transition planning. Fox and Faver (1984) suggest that collaboration permits the merger of resources, division of labor, alleviation of isolation, and creation of energy and commitment to complete projects. Even when agencies agree that collaboration is important, the road from the theory or idea to actual collaborative practice is long, bumpy, and fraught with unknown perils (Hagebak, 1982). Effective, successful collaborative relationships take stamina. Some perils such as administrative and funding regulations are obvious. Others, such as negative attitudes and rigidities that go along with professional status, are just as real but not as visible.

For discussion purposes, these constraints or barriers to successful collaboration may be grouped in three major areas (Tindall, 1986). Attitudinal issues frequently lead to breakdowns in communication. Real or perceived status differences, "turf" protection, personality conflicts and philosophical differences all contribute to making the development of collaborative relationships a true risk-taking procedure. Another barrier relates to differences in policies and procedures, regulations, and terminology. Without cross-agency training, these differences may result in communication breakdown. In some cases, agency policies or union regulations may prohibit one agency from fulfilling specific components of interagency agreements.

Implementation of effective collaborative processes requires understanding or resolution of these differences. In becoming too concerned about one agency's inability to fulfill one element of an agreement, some participants may lose sight of the long range goals, or may be reluctant to consider possible compromises or alternatives. If issues are raised again and again without resolution, participants may begin to withdraw from the process and not cooperate with other members.

Even effective collaborative relationships have costs. Interorganizational collaboration and cooperation may result in some loss of decision-making autonomy, a change in the organizational image, or direct expenditure of scarce resources (Schermerhorn, 1975). Hord (1986) suggests that both process and outcome costs result from collaborative relationships. Process costs involve time for negotiation and exchange, expenses such as mail, telephone and travel, and the personal investment necessary to sustain collaborative effort. Outcome costs involve delays, evaluation problems, allocation of credit, and possible quality loss.

Understanding is a major step in overcoming barriers to collaboration. Trubowitz (1986) suggests that recognizing eight developmental stages of collaborative processes leads to this understanding:

1. Hostility and skepticism is evidenced as collaborative efforts are initiated. Problems in this stage usually can be dealt with by listening actively, sincerely, and with empathy.
2. Lack of trust emerges as roles merge. As opportunities for dialogue increase, however, people involved in collaborative efforts begin to communicate because of shared or common experiences.
3. A period of truce develops as participants withdraw some prior negative judgements.
4. Mixed mutual approval eventually leads toward accomplishment of collaborative goals.
5. The acceptance fifth stage tends to be a period of stability during which it becomes clear that partnerships are a fluid process with no clear end point. Personnel changes frequently mean that some of the energy that would normally be available for forward movement and strengthening of programs needs to be channeled into developing new relationships, orienting people, and restraining the tendency to return to traditional patterns of running programs.
6. The regression or pessimism stage is characterized by a blurring of the original collaborative vision. Extensive plans for new programs have to be postponed as more effort is needed to maintain what already has been accomplished.
7. The renewal stage reveals resumed energy toward the original or adapted collaborative goal.
8. As with renewal, the continuing progress stage is characterized by more frequent or intense meetings and the introduction of new people to energize the collaborative process.

Sarason (1982) stresses that politics, personalities, and financial difficulties can obstruct best laid plans, and offers a set of principles for establishing cooperative effort:

1. Collaborations should begin with administrative support for removing bureaucratic impediments to collaborative projects, providing incentives and resources, and encouraging expression and recognition of the efforts of individual staff members.
2. Recognition must be given to the fact that not everyone is born to be a collaborator. Collaborators must build informal networks of bridges and assume brokering roles. Ideologues with rigid agendas probably will encounter frustration in initiating or responding to collaborative projects.
3. Persons involved in collaborative efforts should have realistic expectations of needed resources and of constraints experienced by others.
4. Collaborators should work toward consumer satisfaction. They must appreciate what the rewards are for the other side, and find common and unifying efforts.

5. Even though collaborators need to understand how other organizations operate and how personal relationships help to expedite bureaucratic procedures, they should avoid becoming involved in the internal politics of other agencies.
6. Collaborators must be able to rely on effective delivery and reception systems. Designers of the "plugs and sockets" (Sarason, 1982) for collaborative projects need to understand the change process and to assess realistically the resistance to change.

Collaborative activities embrace diverse connections between institutions to accomplish tasks, from formal interagency agreements to informal agreements between two people. The nature of collaborative arrangements depends on the nature of goals hoped to be achieved. Although collaboration usually denotes friends, it also must be viewed as "cavorting with the enemy... By giving up a portion of their sovereignty, the participants can accomplish goals that will bring greater strength and recognition to their individual institutions" (DeBevoise, 1986).

Implications for Practice

Collaboration and cooperation yield a ripple effect of benefits. Not only can adjudicated youth benefit from coordinated and improved services, but involved agencies can achieve time and cost savings as well as image improvement. A variety of innovative yet isolated programs that address transition programs exist throughout the country. The challenge and question before all of us, correctional and public educators, juvenile justice staff, and community workers, is whether or not we are prepared to invest the time, effort and money to actualize the potential of collaborative relationships. As we examine the status of our own field, we must simultaneously begin reaching out to communities and agencies other than our own.

Correction and Public Education - Haberman and Quinn's study (1986) of youth in transition poses sobering realities and thought-provoking questions to correctional educators. What should be the design for education programs in correctional settings? If, as the literature suggests, traditional high school programs in public and correctional settings do not meet educational needs of delinquent youth, why are such programs continued? Can it be that existing program offerings in many correctional education programs meet buresucratic needs rather than address the needs of adjudicated populations?

The California Department of Youth Authority model (1987) offers one method with potential for assessing current program status and designing plans for alternative programs and collaborative projects. Although the intention of this model is not specifically for transition, its components lend themselves to planning for transitional processes. Six strands in the model foster collaboration in encouraging correctional educators to look beyond their own spheres of influence in order to plan appropriately for youthful offenders: Philosophy of Education; Standards; Curriculum; Evaluation; Networking; and, Marketing. The Networking strand is especially relevant to transitional planning.

Reforms are needed throughout public schools if youthful offenders are to make successful transitions and graduate from high school. Cohesive, integrated efforts minimally must combine the following: mentorships and intensive, sustained counseling; an array of social services; concentrated remediation; effective school and business collaboration; improved incentives such as providing financial rewards for completing high school; more accountability for dropout rates at all levels; involvement of parents and community groups; and, year-round and alternative schools. Alternative school programs often are a last opportunity for many youth to continue or resume education. Hahn (1987) identifies two critical elements that enable alternative schools to retain youth: intensity of the learning environment; and concern accorded the social and emotional needs of students.

Juvenile Justice System and Community Agencies - Reforms also are needed outside of the schools. Transition planning, regardless of the level of services, requires systematic and cooperative planning on the part of schools, the juvenile justice system, families and related agencies. This planning will vary with the needs of individual youth and the range of local community resources and employment options (Phelps, et. al. 1987). Follow-up services that focus on skill development and reinforcement in several areas are keys to successful assimilation of youthful offenders into the community: family dynamics; social and recreational skills; educational programming; and vocational readiness and training programs.

A casework management system already used in several communities has implications for helping juvenile offenders make successful transitions. This system provides the extended outreach and individual casework necessary to bridge the gaps in the system for delivering services to dropouts. The Cities in Schools Project (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 1983) in a medium-sized Pennsylvania city uses an integrated case management approach with a single point of reference to coordinate community resources and planning for high risk youth experiencing multi-problems and who require the intervention of agencies engaged in different disciplines. The local school district serves as the physical setting, and Cities in Schools serves as the vehicle for coordinating the delivery of social services to problem youth. Coordination at this level enhances interagency communication, planning, and efficiency, and serves as a model for other school districts.

Conventional education or remediation and community-based programs are not by themselves effective for an at-risk population. What works is comprehensive, integrated planning that facilitates each component strengthening and reinforcing the other. When efforts are "fragmented, compartmentalized, and imperfectly developed, and when long delays and gaps occur in the delivery of the training, the programs reinforce the youngsters' underlying sense of incompetence. Rather than offering a second chance, such programs deliver a death blow to a youngsters' already fragile hopes" (Hahn, 1987).

Boundary Spanning Programs - More transition programs are needed that encourage collaboration among unrelated agencies. The University of Washington (Webb, et. al. 1984) has developed one such model that provides a manual for local school districts and agencies that serve juvenile offenders. This manual identifies four areas that require collaborative planning for transition: (1) Awareness, including knowledge of philosophy, work procedures, and policies of other agencies; (2) Transfer of Records; (3) Pre-placement Planning for appropriate programs in supportive environments; and, (4) Maintaining Placement and Communication.

A training project (Parent Training Collaborative Consortium, 1983) designed to encourage communication among parents of handicapped students offers another collaborative model. This model stresses communication, collaboration, and cooperation as essential elements in program planning for handicapped students. It further endorses voluntary relationships with joint responsibility in attempts to reach consensus on appropriate programming.

Interagency Agreements - Few agencies possess all the necessary resources to meet the totality of juvenile offenders' transition needs. Although a number of different agencies may provide the same or similar services, the scarcity of resources and funds demands the most effective use of available services. Interagency agreements have important implications for coordinating the systematic delivery of high quality transition services. Such agreements promote: (1) sharing of organizational perspectives on the needs of clients; (2) sharing of organizational information in relation to services currently offered to clients; (3) identification of the most crucial unmet needs of clients; (4) identification of new programs or new linkages between existing programs; (5) identification and sharing of resources in order to develop new program configurations; (6) planning and implementing of new programs by key staff from organizations holding needed resources; and, (7) development of long-term collaborative relationships among organizations to insure continued efforts (DeBevoise, 1986).

Systematic Evaluation - Systematic formative and summative evaluations must occur at all levels of service delivery to provide data for modifying and improving transitional services for youthful offenders. Evaluations of collaborative efforts as well as students' transition programs can provide information useful in understanding how, why, and to what extent the efforts actually succeed in helping adjudicated youth make effective transitions.

Summary

Collaborative processes cannot be accomplished unilaterally. Their very nature requires, and in fact demands, joint effort. When collaboration works, however, the results are worth the effort. The transition process for adjudicated youth will not be successful unless agencies work together to insure the delivery of appropriate, non-duplicated services.

Four specific steps assist in eliminating obstacles that block collaborative relationships: (1) the exchange of information in the areas of identification of legislative mandates, types of service provided and eligibility requirements, and planning procedures for each agency; (2) staff development within and across agencies to promote better working relationships; (3) restructuring of services among agencies so that duplicated services are eliminated and appropriate services are initiated; and, (4) joint planning.

In building a community of concern for meeting youthful offenders' transition needs, it is essential to recognize that "none of us, no matter what our position, has the answers to the complex problems we face...We need to understand not only the variety of collaborative activities and arrangements, but what people get from these relationships and what it takes to sustain them" (Lieberman, 1986). Collaborations take many forms: large and small, heavily funded or not funded at all, organized within systems by groups of staff or administrators, or organized by a business, foundation, university, or professional organization. With any collaborative relationship, it is crucial to remember that nothing can be done without people.

Legislative mandates and regulations will not result in meaningful planning for transition. Supportive, involved, and informed collaboration and cooperation is the best insurance that opportunities will exist to maximize youthful offenders' full potential. The time has come to stop being satisfied with conservative changes. Effort must be focused on implementing new configurations of existing resources that will meet the varied transition needs of youthful offenders.

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Deinstitutionalization of Youth in Trouble: Recent Trends and Policy Issues

Paul Lerman

Abstract

Since the 1960s deinstitutionalization of traditional youth facilities has been a preferred policy in virtually all of the states. This manuscript utilizes information to assess the actual trends over a 50 year time span for three distinct systems,—child welfare, juvenile corrections, and mental health,—providing care, custody, and treatment services for youth in trouble. Contrary to accepted beliefs, rates of institutionalization have risen sharply in the latter two systems, and have declined in the child welfare system. The reasons for these surprising results and the policy implications for dealing with youth in trouble are discussed.

Introduction

A few years ago the author conducted an analysis of the use of institutions in three major systems - juvenile corrections, child welfare, and mental health - over a 50 year time span (Lerman, 1982). The purpose of this article is to update the analysis of utilization trends to cover the 1980s, and to discuss the potential implications of the data for policy related to residential and home-based services.

Since the 1960s it has become increasingly apparent that the trends of a single human service system for youth cannot be understood in isolation. Many youth in trouble, having similar behavioral and demographic characteristics can be found in any one of the three major systems, depending on the variety of resources and placement organizations available in a community, state, or region. The utilization of a variety of institutions can occur for youth in trouble regardless of the formal or official categories available in a state. The term "youths in trouble" refers to youth having difficulty with parents, adults, and/or acceptable norms and laws existing in a community.

Many persons believe that there has been a reduction in the use of youth institutions over the past half century. The evidence does not support this belief if an ideal definition of deinstitutionalization (DE) is used - a reduction in the number admitted during a year and resident on a census day in institutions of any type, regardless of sponsorship. If a more pragmatic definition of DE is used - a reduction in the use of traditional facilities (institutions for dependent-neglected children, state training schools, and state/country mental hospitals) - then some shifts in institutional use can be noted. For analytic purposes, both an ideal and pragmatic definition of DE will be used.

Data presentation is drawn from the following sources to depict past and recent trends:

a) Deinstitutionalization and the Welfare State (Lerman, 1982);
b) two surveys by the University of Chicago on the number and residential use of children's facilities in 1966 and 1981, directed by Dr. Donnell Pappenfort (Young, Pappenfort and Marlow, 1966 and 1981);
c) periodic surveys conducted by the National Institute of Mental Health, 1985 and 1987;
d) the *Children in Custody* series published by the Bureau of Justice Statistics (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1986 and 1987), as well as unpublished data furnished to the author by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention; and
e) one-day resident counts of institutional use and censuses of youth populations, conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1980).

GENERAL INSTITUTIONAL TRENDS BETWEEN THE 1920s AND 1970s

An analysis of the data for the 50 year period from the 1920s to the 1970s reveals a decrease in the use of institutions in only one system - child welfare. Decreases in the use of facilities for dependent/neglected youth were quite sharp, but these were more than offset by the expansion of the other two systems. Increases were registered in the use of private correctional facilities, residential treatment centers, psychiatric units of general and state hospitals, and private psychiatric facilities. During this time there emerged a new youth in trouble institutional system that included traditional and new types in all three fields. An implicit assumption of this broader institutional system is that the behaviors resulting in short and long term placement decisions could, under statutes in all fifty states, bring youths into conflict with the juvenile laws of their jurisdiction - if the enforcement and judicial systems took official note of their "acting out" behaviors.

Probable reasons for the emergence of this broader institutional system are as follows:

1. A Shift in the Balance Between the Public and Private Sector

In the juvenile correctional field, the custody, care, and treatment of youth has been increasingly shared with private organizations (mainly non-profit, but some proprietary). By the 1970s data of the Juvenile in Custody

series revealed that up to 48 percent of youth residents in non-detention facilities were living under private auspices.

2. Increase in Voluntary Commitment

Private organizations, unlike public institutions, can take referrals for placement from a variety of sources, both public and private. By the 1970s up to 24 percent of the residents of private juvenile correctional facilities were voluntary. In practice, a voluntary commitment is synonymous with the emerging emphasis on diversion from the official correctional system.

3. Redefinition of Delinquent Behaviors

Since the emergence of child guidance clinics in the 1920s, there has been an increasing tendency to view deviant behaviors as signs of "acting out" and as symptoms of an emotional disturbance. Both public and private agency personnel share this view. Although residential treatment facilities and special group homes are usually classified as mental health or child-caring institutions, rather than as correctional facilities, the residents of the former are also described as requiring a "high level of structure."

4. Expansion of Mental Health Boundaries and Services

Mental Health professionals have become increasingly willing to hospitalize youths not displaying obvious psychotic and serious psychiatric symptoms. New types of inpatients, documented in the 1970s, included alcohol and drug users and adolescents with a variety of transient behavior problems. A majority of juveniles admitted into psychiatric facilities or psychiatric wards of general hospitals were admitted because of diagnoses that included the following non-specific disorders: transient situational; childhood; personality; or drugs.

5. Federal Funding

Beginning in 1962 federal funds became available for the first time to subsidize out-of-home placements, providing they did not occur in a traditional public correctional facility. The following federal titles of the Social Security Act became available as a funding source for placements: Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC); Child Welfare Services; Social Services; Medicaid; and Supplementary Security Income. These funds were particularly important in funding private placements.

RECENT INSTITUTIONAL TRENDS

The increase in the use of institutions in the mental health and juvenile corrections system has continued through the 1980s. These recent trends can be specified by assessing a variety of indicators. The available data can be summarized in terms of ten distinct indicators.

1. Number of Facilities

A careful survey of the number of facilities in 1966 and 1981 discloses that two traditional facilities — dependent/neglected and maternity homes-experienced sharp declines. However, the total number of facilities in the other major systems increased. The net gain was about 60 percent for all facility types over a 15 year period.

2. Number of Residents on a Census Day

The average number of residents on a census day in dependent/neglected facilities decreased from 1966 to 1981. The mental health system had more residents, while the juvenile correction system remained stable. There was a net loss in the number of residents, but this occurred primarily in the child welfare system.

3. Average Length of Stay

Since the 1960s there has been a decrease in all facility types. The sharpest reduction occurred in dependent/neglected institutions - from an average stay of 32 months to 3 months.

4. Number of Admissions

With an overall increase in the number of facilities and reduced length of stay, there is a sizeable potential for a large increase in admissions. A sizeable increase did occur in the mental health system. An increase occurred in the number of admissions in long term correctional facilities, but there was a decrease in detention admissions. The child welfare system's rates are unknown because of deficient statistical reporting capabilities. For the two other systems, there was an overall increase in the numbers admitted since the 1960s.

5. Average Size of Facilities

There is little doubt that the average has been reduced sharply. The 1966 average of 67 youth per facility has been reduced to 32 per facility. This decrease occurred in all of the systems.

6. Mixture of Problem-Youth in Facilities

Public correctional facilities for juveniles became more homogeneous with the removal of status offenders. However, all other institutional types experienced an increase in the diversity of their populations in residence and/or admitted. For example, 15-46 percent of all

residents of non-correctional facilities served youth accused or adjudicated as delinquent; 15-50 percent of youths in non-alcoholic facilities served alcohol or drug cases; and 14-33 percent of youth in non-correctional facilities served youths perceived as violent.

7. Age Composition

All facility types reported fewer youth under the age of 12 as residents. This is a continuation of a long-term trend that began in the 1950s. It is safe to conclude that DE has occurred primarily for youth under 12.

8. Restrictiveness/Openness to Community

The relative openness of institutions has increased since the 1920s, but there exists an extensive variability between facility types. The proportion of a facility's youth permitted to go to a school in the community is one index of openness. The percent of residents attending public schools in the three types of facilities are: dependent/neglected - 78 percent; emotionally disturbed - 35 percent; delinquent - 12 percent; psychiatric - 8 percent. A similar range is found if we use the proportion of youth visiting friends in a home. The most restrictive settings are psychiatric hospitals and facilities for delinquents. The number of psychiatric hospitals and wards of general hospitals for youth that are locked may exceed the rate of closed juvenile correctional facilities, but this kind of assessment has not yet occurred on a national scale.

9. Auspices for Profit

Prior to 1966 proprietary auspices accounted for about one to eight percent of the available residential facilities. By 1981 this range had increased from about two to 17 percent. If we examine specific types, like private psychiatric hospitals, then the amount of privatization that has occurred increases to 63 percent of the facilities. Private psychiatric hospitals have increased the most sharply in number of facilities, residents, and admissions compared with other types of facilities. In 1971 there were about 7,700 impatient episodes of youth under 18 in private psychiatric hospitals; by 1984 this had increased to about 44,300, being more than a five-fold increase.

10. Expansion of Third Party Funding

In the past, funding for institutional stays was provided primarily by local and state subsidies. In recent years, funding may occur via medical/hospitals insurance and Medicaid. The use of third party funding varies by system, but there is also great variability within a service system. For example, private psychiatric hospitals and psychiatric units in general hospitals hardly receive any direct state funds (0-5 percent) but state/county hospitals receive 69 percent of all their funding from the state. By contrast, private psychiatric hospitals and general hospital wards receive approximately 50 percent from insurance and fees, while public mental hospitals rely on only 5 percent of their funding from this source.

POTENTIAL CAUSES OF RECENT TRENDS

It is evident that DE has occurred primarily for youth under 12 and has been concentrated in the child welfare system. What kinds of variables can be nominated to account for these recent trends, in addition to the causes cited earlier? The author proposes the following:

1. Ideology

There has been an expanded acceptance of the idea that youthful deviant behaviors are symptoms of an emotional problem. The use of psychiatric/medical diagnoses serves as a justification for special "residential treatment" in a non-traditional facility.

2. Funding

The availability of new third party sources - primarily medical/hospital insurance and Medicaid - has favored specific residential treatment options. Private psychiatric hospitals and units of general hospitals are the primary recipients of these funds. Insurance and Medicaid are not usually available for home-based services before or after placements.

3. Public Entrepreneurship

The shift in funding sources has occurred in a culture that extolls private enterprise as a superior means of offering goods and services. An unknown number of non-profit professionals (including doctors, psychologists, and social workers) became leaders of human services for profit, and many non-profit organizations are increasingly led by leaders expert in putting together combined fiscal packages to subsidize placement.

4. Parental Acquiescence

Whether youth problems have increased since the 1920s is an unanswered question, but the willingness of parents to rely on the opinion of professional mental health experts has probably increased. If the experts propose a psychiatric diagnosis, a rationale for placement, and a third party funding source, then parents appear more likely to acquiesce to the opinion of the experts.

5. Laissez-Faire Regulation Policies

While the juvenile correctional system has been "domesticated" by the *Gault* decision, the other two systems are not as tightly regulated. In particular, the ease of signing a youth into a mental health facility has yet to be significantly curtailed by the U.S. Supreme Court or federal and state legislation.

POLICY ISSUES

In order to assess any planned or implicit public policy, specific standards for preferences are useful in discussing issues. This section will rely on five standards:

1) Effectiveness - We generally desire that our policies remove or remedy social problems;

2) Least Cost - We generally value supporting those programs that are run efficiently and provide the greatest value for the dollar;

3) Social and Individual Costs - We generally prefer options that impose fewer intrusive and coercive costs on indivduals and on cherished beliefs about liberty, non-segregation, and normalization of living;

4) Fairness - We generally favor the imposition of restrictions on living that are arrived at with the norms and procedures of due process; and

5) Promote Other Values - We generally favor promoting other values besides social control of youth in trouble, since we want youth to grow up with independence, autonomy, and productivity.

Under these five standards, specific policy issues emerge as agenda items for public discussion in every state and on a federal level.

1. Effectiveness

Reducing youth's troublesome behaviors is a goal of all three systems. It is important to note that there are still no acceptable empirical evidence that institutionalization is a more effective policy than non-institutionalizational alternatives. In addition, there are no acceptable studies demonstrating that one form of institutional type is more effective than another, or that more intrusive types are more effective than less restrictive types. In general, there is no good evidence that the continuing increases in institutionalization constitutes effective policy. Two issues are potential agenda items:

a) Are we willing to fund good research to get informed answers about non-institutional or less restrictive program alternatives?

b) While we wait for more informed answers, what criteria other than effectiveness will we rely on for making decisions aobut next year's budgets and resource allocations?

2. Economic Costs

It is generally true that institutions incur great fiscal outlays per youth, in comparison to non-residential alternatives. In addition, each state's institutions capture more of the available resources for dealing with youth in trouble than do other alternatives. In mental health, for example, impatient alternatives capture two-thirds of the available resources in a fiscal year. It is likely that a similar ratio also occurs in the correctional system. In general, we can utilize the inference that costs increase as we go from home-based services to foster care, group homes, residential treatment centers, and hospitalization. Two issues are potential agenda items:

a) Are we willing to confront the conflict between the share of resources available for home-based services vs. the share captured by increasing utilization rates of institutionalization?

b) How can we deal with the incentives that promote third party funding for institutional stays vs. the near-absence of insurance and Medicaid reimbursement to pay for home-based services?

3. Social/Individual Costs

It is generally accepted that institutions, in comparison to home-based alternatives, are more intrusive, segregated, non-normal, and restrictive. Besides these social costs, individuals in some placements bear physical costs via psychoactive medication (with unknown long-term side effects, as well as unknown psychological costs). Potential agenda items are:

a) Can we identify sufficient social and individual benefits for an expanding institutional policy that might theoretically offset social and individual costs?

b) If so, are we willing to fund the necessary studies to empirically assess whether human as well as fiscal costs, are indeed offset by projected social and individual benefits?

4. Fairness

In the 1960s the *Gault* decision had a profound impact in making the juvenile justice and related correctional programs a fairer system. In child welfare, child placement and permanency planning requirements have also brought a degree of scrutiny to residential placement decisions. In contrast, there are few social, legal, ethical, or professional constraints on decisions to institutionalize youth in the mental health system. The ability of the mental health decision-makers to continue to operate without external scrutiny is questionable on the basis of available evidence. Recent national data indicate that one-half or more of psychiatric placements of youth continue to be for symptoms or behaviors that are not associated with severe forms of mental illness. In addition,

there exists little objective evidence that youth who have severe mental disorders actually require a stay in a hospital, rather than outpatient treatment. Two issues for potential agenda items are:

a) Are we willing to accept the status quo of an unregulated mental health system that yields increasing rates of institutionalization, or are we willing to grapple with the problems associated with creating balanced regulations and the use of fair criteria and procedures to govern all placement decisions?

b) Are we willing to confront the potential conflict of interest in placement for private profit in psychiatric hospitalization vs. the criteria of placement for social and individual benefits?

5. Promote Other Values

Institutionalization decisions often involve complex reasons. Social control is one valued reason for relying on an institutional stay to incapacitate or deter troublesome behaviors. But we also value that youth can grow up to be independent, autonomous, and productive outside of an institution. Skills associated with these values have to be practiced in normal communities. Potential agenda items are:

a) How can we capture more pre-institutional dollars for services to offer better pro-social supportive programs?

b) If we do institutionalize, how do we capture more dollars for post-institutional services to promote pro-social values and skills?

c) If dollars remain stable from one fiscal year to the next, are we willing to insist on less funding for institutions, and thereby have more resources available for transitional services as an integral part of any placement?

Summary and Conclusion

It is unlikely that a policy for transitional services for youth can be fully articulated without also having a policy towards institutionalization. If we continue the traditional strategy of viewing transitional services in isolation, so that institutionalization continues to be the dominant policy that captures public subsides and third party funds, we shall continue to respond to recurring trends. If we are interested in developing a new transitional policy, then confronting and dealing with persistent institutional trends is a crucial requirement. This article is designed as a contribution to a debate that could profitably occur at local, state, and federal levels. Perhaps a discussion of trends and policy issues can be promoted by advocacy groups at budget hearings and other public forums. If so, we might begin to set goals to stabilize - and even reduce - institutional trends in all three systems in all fifty states. In the process, we might begin to reallocate public and third party funds to an expansion of home-based services.

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Biography

Paul Lerman is a Professor of Social Work and Sociology, Rutgers University, New Jersey, and the Director of a research project comparing the responses of mental health and child welfare systems to adolescent, behavioral and emotional problems. Prior studies on social policy responses to recurrent social problems resulted in books on deinstitutionalization and community treatment, as well as articles on the fairness of juvenile justice shifts in policies toward youth in trouble, and the growing convergence of youth services and corrections systems.

Youth in Transition - Two Perspectives

Bruce Wolford
Karen Janssen
Cynthia J. Miller

Abstract

The movement of troubled youth from residential to community settings compounds the difficulties facing young people as they make the transition to adult life. The results of a national survey of state juvenile correctional transition services are summarized in this article. The authors also discuss the experiences and findings of a demonstration transition project in Kentucky. The article concludes with the identification of the key components of an effective transition program and recommendations for implementation.

Introduction

Adjudicated youth who have been committed to juvenile correctional facilities face many challenges in their transition to adult life in the community. Transition from school to work is at present a national priority for youth with educational handicaps. Transition has been defined as "an outcome oriented process encompassing a broad array of services and experiences that lead to employment" (Will, 1984). The time span of the transition process covers high school, post secondary or adult services and initial years of employment. For many youthful offenders who return to the community, reentry into public school is too often not a viable alternative (Haberman & Quinn, 1986). The majority of youth committed to the Kentucky Department for Social Services have a history of school problems (70 percent) and have been previously enrolled in special education programs (56 percent) (Adams, 1987). The majority of these youth have a right to an appropriate public education through the age of 21 under the federal Education of the Handicapped Act (EHA).

The opportunities for transition to meaningful employment are equally limited for adjudicated youth. Many youth who return to the community lack the necessary job seeking and retention skills needed to obtain employment. Lacking marketable job skills and having a limited education, these individuals are typically faced with a bleak future. Effective strategies are needed for social services and correctional professionals to use in the transition of adjudicated youth from institutional environments to community settings (Webb, Maddox, & Edgar, 1986). A commitment to and strategies for interagency collaboration must be developed because no one agency can meet the service needs of these youth and because transition by definition involves a wide variety of components of the community.

National Perspectives

As phase one of Kentucky's project a national phone survey was conducted by the Eastern Kentucky University Training Resource Center to determine how states were addressing the problems associated with the transition of youth from correctional facilities to their home communities. The survey, which was conducted during March-May, 1987, asked chief state juvenile correctional officials or their designees to respond to 26 questions. The questions focused on the organization of juvenile correctional services, policies and procedures related to transition, and the identification of the best transitional programs in each state. A summary of selected data from the information gathered regarding the organization of juvenile correctional services and existing policies and procedures related to transition are presented in this article.

On the national survey, 16 of the questions elicited either a yes/no response or one of a limited number of responses. The coded responses to these questions are displayed in Tables 1, 2, and 3. Table 1 presents an overview of the responses for each state; Tables 2 and 3 summarize the responses of the states. Table 4 contains the 16 questions selected from the total survey.

The coordination of services required for the successful transition of youth from correctional facilities has been assisted in some states by placing juvenile correctional services and social services within the same agency. Slightly less than half (23) of the states have combined juvenile programs and social services within one comprehensive agency. Despite the national trend toward longer fixed sentences for adult offenders, most states (31) have retained indeterminate commitments for juvenile offenders. The most common mandatory release ages were 18 (19 states) and 21 (20 states). The age of mandatory release ranged from 16 to 25. Only 9 of the 50 states and the District of Columbia reported that they required community supervision after release at the mandatory age. Because of the lack of supervision in the community, if release is at the mandatory age, many states indicated that youth were frequently released prior to the mandatory age to increase the probability that post release services would be accessed by the youth. Most states (43) reported having established special provisions for youth who commit violent offenses which frequently included the option of a commitment to an adult facility.

Typically, adjudicated youth are eligible for school

services before and after being in a correctional facility, but there is often not a timely flow of information between the public schools and the correctional settings. Although the majority of states (41) reported procedures for the transfer of school records to the correctional facility, most jurisdictions (40) reported that the records were not received until after the youth had been placed in the facility. Procedures for notifying the public school of the youth's release and impending return to the community were reported by 42 of the states. When asked about the transfer of the records to the school from the facility, 26 states reported that records were sent after rather than before or at the same time of the youth's release. When educational records are not available, youth who need special educational services may not receive them in the correctional facility or when they return to the public schools. Officials in all states and D.C. reported that individual education programs (IEP's) were developed for the incarcerated youth with learning handicaps. The reported procedures and amount of parental involvement in the development of IEP's varied considerably among the states.

School enrollment, job training, or placement were reported by 25 states as conditions of release. School enrollment often was mentioned but not required for youth over 16 years of age. After release from a juvenile or correctional facility, youth in most states (45) are placed under community supervision. The agencies and professionals responsible for supervision varied between states and at times within a state.

Half of the states (25) reported major revisions in their juvenile justice system/code during the preceding 5 years. Only 23 of the states reported having conducted any follow-up studies of the youth leaving residential correctional programs. According to the officials interviewed, 41 states have written guidelines for the transition of youth from correctional facilities back to their home communities.

Juvenile correctional services in the United States are not provided in a uniform or consistent fashion. The states have adopted different administrative, sentencing and operating procedures in response to the youth in trouble. Juvenile justice is in a period of change with nearly half of the states having enacted major revisions in their juvenile codes since 1982.

The services and resources available to youth returning to the community from correctional facilities are very limited in most states. In nearly half the states, youth who are released from correctional facilities are not required to attend academic/vocational education programs or obtain employment. The reality is that many released delinquents do not return to a supportive family and are not participating in a supervised education or work program. For many of these youth, their transition may be to more serious crime and into the adult correctional system.

Demonstration Project

The second phase of the Kentucky Transition Project was the establishment of transition teams in two counties. The pilot counties were selected to represent both an urban and rural setting. Information on the delivery of community services to youth in transition was collected by using a "backward mapping" procedure (Brofenbrenner, 1977). Social and educational service agencies were identified in each pilot county. The project coordinator interviewed key players in both counties to seek information on the strengths of and the need for services to assist youth who return to the community from juvenile programs. Discussions focused on what was working well, problems in service delivery and interagency cooperation. These interviews provided the project staff with information about the agencies, a listing of issues affecting the youth in transition, and contact persons within the agencies.

Juvenile services cases were reviewed in each county. The review was designed to identify the number and variety of collateral and family contacts made by the Department for Social Services caseworkers on each case. A total of 45 cases were reviewed, documenting over 4,000 contacts. The average number of contacts per case per month was 2.8 and the average length of a case was 32 months. A clear pattern of case contact emerged which showed a high level of caseworker involvement prior to placement of the youth in a residential setting and only minimal contact during and after a residential placement.

Based upon the "backward mapping" findings and the review of case records a number of barriers to effective transition were identified. A lack of interagency awareness regarding the eligibility criteria for and availability of services available was evident. There was an apparent inconsistency in the transfer of educational records both for youth entering and returning from residential placements. It was also apparent that there was very limited sharing of information among service providers.

To reduce the barriers to effective transition of youth from residential to community settings an Interagency Council for Troubled Youth was established in each county. The councils met on a monthly basis and were facilitated by the Project Coordinator. Participation in the councils was voluntary. The discussions focused on the services provided by the various participating agencies and how these services could be more accessible to youth returning to the community.

Key Elements in Transition Process

Eight key elements were identified which appear essential to the establishment of a comprehensive transitional program for youth returning to the community from correctional residential settings. The eight elements are:

Pre-release Assessment and Planning
Continuum of Care
Family Services
High Frequency of Contact/Supervision
Motivated/Energetic Staff
Leisure Activities
Drug/Alcohol Prevention
Development of Community Resources

Although the discussion of each of these elements could easily warrant a complete article, the authors will briefly review each point to highlight the important role it plays in the transition process.

1. Pre-release Assessment and Planning

In order to have a successful transition from incarceration to the community there must be a plan. Ideally, the planning process would begin prior to incarceration at the time of commitment in the community. The youth should be sent away from the community with the beginnings of a plan for their return. Assessment of needs and skills conducted during the residential stay can be added to the plan. The residential confinement and the focus of education and other programs should be upon the community and youths planned return.

2. Continuum of Care

There needs to be a continuum of services in place and used to aid in the transition process. Youth held in a high security/structure residential setting may need to return to the community via a group home or independent living arrangement. Six months of 24 hour a day supervision and programming will have little effect if the youth's return is to a street corner. The transition process needs to include a continuum of care to ease the release process from a residential setting.

3. Family Services

The troubled youth is a product of and member of a family. Both during and after release from a residential setting the focus of attention and programming should include the family. To direct all our efforts and place all responsibility on the youth is to belie the realities of transition. The family, no matter how troubled, will generally remain the youth's community base. An effective transition program must include a family services component.

4. High Frequency of Contact/Supervision

The youth returning from a residential setting deserves and in most cases need the support and supervision of community service workers. The first six months in the community after release from incarceration have long been recognized as crucial to the future of an offender. The transition process is enhanced by frequent contact between the youth and helping professionals in the community.

5. Motivated/Energetic Staff

Agencies do not cooperate, people do. It is important to recognize that every effective transitional service program has motivated and energetic staff members. Transition to be effective requires that professionals give of themselves mentally, emotionally and physically.

6. Leisure Activities

Transitional programs typically focus on school, job training and employment and with good reason. It is often the leisure time endeavors of youth that lead them astray of the law. The comprehensive transition plan needs to address the leisure activities of youth. Community care and supervision also need to address this issue. Residential programming can play an important role in the transition process by providing the youth with new experiences and outlets for constructive use of leisure time.

7. Drug/Alcohol Prevention

The concurrence of substance abuse and criminal behavior are well documented. The majority of incarcerated youth have a history of substance abuse. Transitional services should include education and monitoring programs that address the use of alcohol and drugs.

8. Development of Community Resources

The returning youths need a variety of resources to aid them in the community. No one professional or group of professionals has all the answers for every youth. A network of community based resources should be identified and developed to aid the troubled youth. Transition requires cooperation and collaboration among professionals concerned about the needs of troubled youth.

Conclusion

Troubled youth returning to the community from residential correctional facilities face many impediments to a successful transition to a crime free adult life. State agencies serving adjudicated youth are taking varied approaches to provide transitional services for these youth. In Kentucky, two pilot transition projects have shown encouraging results by using a community resource identification and cooperation process. Comprehensive transitional programs have a number of common ele-

ments which aid them in their efforts to assist youth returning from residential care. Garnering the cooperation of community and residential based professionals is a critical factor in the establishment of effective transitional services for troubled youth.

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Biography

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Cynthia J. Miller was the Transition Coordinator of the Kentucky Youth in Transition Project, Training Resource Center, Eastern Kentucky University. She is currently a Training Specialist for the Kentucky Child Welfare Training Project. She has experience as a social worker and as a substance abuse counselor for chemically dependent youth. She received a B.S. degree in Corrections and a M.S. degree in Criminal Justice, both from Eastern Kentucky University, Richmond.

Eastern Kentucky University

Department of Correctional Services

Training Resource Center Project

The Eastern Kentucky University, Department of Correctional Services' Training Resource Center (TRC) Project provides direct training, competency based curriculum development, job task analysis, instructional media production, research and support services in the areas of corrections, criminal justice and human services.

The TRC draws upon the resources of various University Departments (Correctional Services, Public Safety and Loss Prevention, Psychology, Business, Social Work, Police Administration, and Education). A cadre of consultant/trainers also complement the EKU project staff.

Recent TRC projects include:

- Development of a Competency-Based Training Curriculum for Juvenile Specialists
- Completed Job Task Analyses of:
  - Foster Care Workers
  - Child Protective Services Workers
  - Juvenile Probation/Aftercare Workers
- Operation of New Employee Academy
- Sponsorship of National Correctional Trainers Conference
- Domestic Violence Seminars
- Safe Physical Management Training

The services of TRC are available to local, state and federal government agencies and private human services providers. To obtain additional information on the project contact:

Training Resource Center
Eastern Kentucky University
217 Perkins Building
Richmond, KY 40475-3127
(606) 622-1497
(606) 622-6264 (Fax)

Table I
YOUTH IN TRANSITION:
From Incarceration to Reintegration

A National Survey of Juvenile Correctional Services

Data Summary By State

| Selected Items from National Survey | | |

Table 2

YOUTH IN TRANSITION
NATIONAL SURVEY OF JUVENILE CORRECTIONAL AGENCIES
DATA SUMMARY FOR UNITED STATES AND D.C.

	Selected Items from the National Survey	Number of States Responding	
1.	Correctional Programs/Social Services: Same Agency	23	28
4.	Supervision after Mandatory Release Age	9	42
5.	Special Provisions for Serious Offenses	43	8
6.	Procedures for Transfer of School Records	41	10
8.	Public School Notified of Release	42	9
10.	Individual Education Plan	51	0
11.	Release Condition (School, Job Training, Job)	25	26
12.	Major Revision in System/Code since 1982	25	26
14.	Require Supervision by Community Worker	45	6
15.	Follow-Up Studies Conducted	23	28
16.	Written Guidelines for Transition	41	10

Table 3

YOUTH IN TRANSITION
NATIONAL SURVEY OF JUVENILE CORRECTIONAL AGENCIES
DATA SUMMARY FOR UNITED STATES AND D.C.

	Selected Items from the National Survey	Number of States	State Responses
2.	Commitments	11	Determinant
		31	Indeterminant
		9	Both
3.	Maximum Age of Commitment	3	16/17
		27	18/19/20
		21	21/25
7.	School Records Received (Upon Commitment)	8	Before
		3	Same Time
		40	After
9.	Facility Records Transfer to School at Release	10	Before
		15	Same Time
		26	After
13.	Aftercare/Parole Supervision	8	Social Worker
		27	Probation/Parole
		16	Aftercare Worker/Other

Table 4

YOUTH IN TRANSITION
NATIONAL SURVEY OF JUVENILE CORRECTIONAL AGENCIES
SELECTED ITEMS FROM THE NATIONAL SURVEY

1. In your state, are juvenile correctional programs and social services in the same agency?
   Y N

2. Are juvenile commitments determinate?
   Y N

3. Youth can be committed until they reach what age? ____

4. What happens when youth reach the age for mandatory release while incarcerated?
   ____ Released with supervision ____ Released without supervision
   ____ Transferred to adult facility ____ Referred to community service

5. Are there special provisions in your Juvenile Statutes for sentencing youth who commit violent offenses?
   Y N

6. Is there a policy or procedure for transfer of the youth's school records to the juvenile correctional facility?
   Y N

7. When are school records typically received?
   Before Same Time After Just if Requested Never

8. When a youth is leaving a facility, is there a policy or procedure for notifying the public school that the youth should be enrolling there?
   Y N

9. When are records transferred from the facility to the school?
   Before Same Time After Just if Requested Never

10. For incarcerated youth with learning handicaps, what procedure is used for planning the youth's individualized special education program?
    IEP? Y N

11. Is there a requirement that youth be returning to school, job training, or a job before they are released from a facility?
    Y N

12. Have there been any major revisions in your Juvenile Justice System/Code in the last 5 years?
    Y N (If yes) What were 3 major changes?

13. Does the community social worker supervise youth on aftercare or parole?
    Y N

14. What requirements are there for supervision by and contact with a community worker?

15. Has your state done any follow-up studies on youth leaving juvenile facilities?
    Y N

16. Do you have written guidelines for transition of youth from correctional facilities back to their community, school, or work?
    Y N

Support Program For Parents of Suspended Youth

Jane E. Smith

Abstract

The Parent Support Program was developed in 1984 at Tulsa County Alternative School (TCAS), Tulsa, Oklahoma. TCAS is designed to serve students, grades 7 through 12, who have been suspended from their home school. The Parent Support Program provides education and support to parents of students who are struggling with problems of raising teenagers in difficult situations. This article will describe the Program as a developing model program in Oklahoma.

Need for the Program

Students who attend Tulsa County Alternative School (TCAS) have been suspended from their home school for a specified period of time. These students can attend TCAS during that time and continue earning credit until the end of their specified suspension. Drug involvement, aggressive behavior, and truancy are the most common reasons for suspension. The average length of suspension is one semester, although there have been students suspended for as little as one week and as long as two consecutive semesters. Frequently, parents are "at the end of their ropes" with these children and know of nowhere else to turn for support. Many of these parents have requested training in more effective parenting skills, which was the reason for creating a parent support program. This program offers education and support services to discouraged and frustrated parents and helps TCAS better meet the needs of the entire family. Offering the Parent Support Program through TCAS allows the counselor to more directly and efficiently serve the parents' needs, thus making school a success for the student where previously there had been failure.

The parent support counselor works with students identified as high risk individuals. Through individual counseling with the students and their parents, long term and immediate goals are set. The counselor meets with the parents and provides essential education and support services. These meetings can be individual sessions at school, telephone sessions, or attendance at weekly parent support meetings. These meetings provide information on effective parenting techniques, better communication skills, assertive discipline styles, drug and alcohol use, and support in coping with difficult problems. Parents develop a broader understanding of anger, depression, and guilt that cause turmoil in the family. The parents also gain an awareness of how they acquired their own parenting techniques which is generally from previous generations. Having this knowledge frees the parent from an ineffective pattern of "victim" and "blamer" to a pattern of actions and reactions, which suggests that everyone in the family has a part in maintaining the problem. They need to become aware that how they are trying to change others has become destructive to the entire family. The only person they have the power to control or change is themselves. Parents who initially wanted the school to "fix" their children found themselves making healthy changes in their own lives.

Initial Program Design

In 1984, the principal and director of the school submitted a proposal through the Office of Tulsa County Superintendent of Schools to the Department of Economic and Community Affairs (DECA) for funds to be provided for the position of parent support counselor. DECA granted funds for the Program for a period of three years, with 80 percent refunding each year.

The initial DECA contract called for a counselor to be hired to work with high risk students. This identification of students would be made on the basis of attendance records, failure notices, social difficulties, and emotional problems. Further identification would be based on classwork progress by the teachers or counselor. Current and past probation would also be a basis for referral, along with identified drug/alcohol users, runaways, and those with severe parental discipline problems. A follow-up group would be offered to students returning to their home school to aid in transition. The counselor would organize a Parent Support Group, meeting weekly, to provide support and education to parents which would aid in more effective management of the home situation.

The initial DECA grant contained specific conditions to be met during the project year. These performance indicators could be evaluated at specified intervals. Table 1 represents these goals and achievements for all four years. Evaluation is done by written questionnaire at the end of each school semester, completed by families receiving services.

Program Improvements

The parent support counselor developed a library of self-help material using a checkout card system. The counselor expanded the topics presented at the meetings to include communication skills, assertive discipline styles, basic Reality Therapy concepts, marital problem education, problem solving skills, drug/alcohol infor-

mation, step- and single-parenting problems, education on guilt, anger, and depression, crisis intervention options, and outside placement agencies in the community for children. The counselor prepared a brochure listing the agencies in the community most applicable to the family and presented this to each parent.

As a way for more contact with the parents, the counselor was involved in the disciplinary segment, working with repeated behavioral problem students. The students were given the opportunity, during isolation with the counselor to review their options: to change their behavior and stay in school or to consider outside options. If the student stayed, the counselor worked with the student to develop an acceptable behavioral plan. The parents would be contacted by the counselor during this time for their education on the problem. As the number of students on contract increased, the counselor began a support group, meeting at least weekly, to help the students remain in school.

The 1987-88 school year saw further changes in the Parent Support Program. It was no longer funded by DECA and was now being supported by Alternative Education funding from the State Department of Education. They had no specific requirements, although their goal was to develop the Program into a model program to be used in other Oklahoma alternative schools. Many of the same DECA grant requirements were retained, though, because of the success. During this year, the counselor reformatted the Parent Support meetings, providing different speakers from agencies and hospitals in the community to present information about a particular topic. A formalized list of these topics and speakers was developed and a printed agenda stating these dates, topics, and times was mailed to all parents. Letting the parents know this information brought more involvement from the parents, rather than relying only on communication with the parents to let them know the topic. The actual results of these new changes can be seen in Table 1.

A "brief topic folder" was developed for those parents who did not want to read books from the library, but who wanted information in more concise form. The topic folder contained articles on drug and alcohol use, discipline, step parenting and other topics, retrieved from Psychology Today, "drug clinic" section from the newspaper, and from relevant journals. The topics touch briefly on a subject and allow parents to gain valuable information without spending long hours reading books.

Table 1
PARENT SUPPORT GROUP EVALUATION SUMMARY

	(Nov - May) Full-Time 1984-1985		Full-Time 1985-1986		60%Time 1986-1987		(Sept - April) Full-Time 1987-1988
Description	Grant Objective	Actual	Grant Objective	Actual	Grant Objective	Actual	Actual
Total enrollment in TCAS		86		103		132	121
Total families receiving support services	40	41	60	62	60	68	77
Percentage of families served		48%		60%		52%	64%
Number of group meetings	30	76	45	53[a]	45	25[b]	17
Number attending meetings		87		137[c]		107	80
Individual/intake counseling sessions	30-50	68	60	90	60	87	130
Telephone sessions		38		64		224	303
Follow-up communication	Required	Achieved	Required	Achieved	Required	Achieved	Achieved
Program evaluation	Required	Achieved	Required	Achieved	Required	Achieved	Achieved

[a](3 groups combined)
[b](2 groups disbanned)
[c](includes summer group)

The folder remains available for checkout anytime. Videos on the above topics were purchased and available for checkout.

Future Direction of the Program

There are several new goals for the Parent Support Program, making it available to more parents in Tulsa County. The Director of the program and the school wants the program to be based more out of Tulsa County Superintendent of Schools' office, rather than just TCAS. All counselors, principals, and superintendents in Tulsa County public schools are to be made aware of the Parent Support Program so they can have another referral source available to them. Having a direct referral source may offer help to parents at an earlier stage. The counselor would work with these parents to develop and support an education plan according to their needs. Using this program in the public schools might help in the prevention of further delinquent behavior. In this same direction, the Program is to be made available to all Tulsa public school teachers, especially the in-house suspension directors. The program would be available to them for personal and professional reasons. Another goal is to make it available to the other alternative schools in Tulsa and to other agencies who provide counseling for the family. These parents might find a needed avenue of support where they could hear relevant information concerning their own problems, and make needed contact with other parents going through similar situations, which would provide support for positive changes.

The parent support counselor is now approved for staff development points in Tulsa County public schools, available to present relevant topics to the school staff and also how to better involve parents in their schools. This presentation would take place on the staff's professional days and would be used as their staff development. Having the relevant information, teachers might be able to make appropriate changes in problem situations and also be able to refer parents to the Program.

Another idea being considered is making the Parent Support Program available to the juvenile bureau, to parents whose children are on probation. Most of these parents have run out of options and have become inflexible in dealing with their family's problems. They tend to use the same ineffective parenting skills which produce more negative changes. Making this option available to them might break the family's patterns, which would allow for needed appropriate changes in the family.

The final direction of the Parent Support Program is working more closely with the County Superintendent's office in their dropout/truancy program. The truancy counselor provides follow-up work, making options available to the families of non-attending students, as well as gathering pertinent information concerning the reasons for the student's truancy. If the reasons for the truancy are known, new directions for counseling, support, and education to the family could be developed according to these needs. The parent support counselor would provide the same support and education services which could help in the prevention of truancy, if detected early, or would provide follow-up support services to those parents whose child no longer attends school, for whatever reason. New parenting skills and support would be a necessary factor for these negative patterns to be broken. This program can provide an avenue for that to occur.

For these changes to occur, people in the community will need to know about the Parent Support Program. A flier with the needed information of parent meeting topics, dates, places, and times will be distributed to Tulsa County public schools, the other alternative schools, and appropriate agencies. The parent support counselor will also be invited to meetings where other Tulsa County superintendents and counselors are involved so that the Counselor can be introduced. These key people in the schools will be given fliers to take with them for handing out to parents whose children are at risk. This new public relations approach is the first effort in making others aware of the program.

Conclusion

Parent support and education on difficult problems needs to be available to families as early as possible. Providing a parent support program through the school system makes this a logical and efficient option, reaching far more people in need than any other institution. This education and support may be the avenue by which families make needed positive changes, thereby assuring more success in school for the students where previously there had been failure.

Biography

Jane Smith is a Parent Support Counselor at Tulsa County Alternative School, and has been developing the Parent Support Program since 1984. She has presented the Program in national seminars, to the State PTA convention, and to local groups in Tulsa County. Mrs. Smith obtained her Master's degree from Tulsa University in Agency Counseling, a field which focuses on families and their needs. She received her B.A. degree in Sociology at Oklahoma State University in 1977, and her A.A. degree at Cottey College in Nevada, Missouri.

Applicability of Behavior Rating Scales for Juvenile Correctional Settings

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Abstract

Behavior rating scales provide professionals involved with disturbed or disturbing individuals a time efficient and inexpensive means to assess problem behaviors, monitor behavioral change, evaluate programs, and conduct research. The use of behavior rating scales in regular educational settings is widespread, but they are infrequently used within juvenile correctional facilities. This article examines the use of the Behavior Dimensions Rating Scale (BDRS) with juvenile offenders in correctional education settings. The BDRS has recently undergone a national validation for use with juvenile offenders. This scale has the potential to assist professionals who serve juvenile offenders in the (a) identification of problem behaviors, (b) educational decision-making, and (c) evaluation of programs and therapeutic interventions. Within transition, interagency uses include the facilitation of (a) data collection, (b) case management, (c) program evaluation, and (d) research.

In 1983 an estimated 236,930 youth were temporarily detained in a secure facility prior to adjudication (National Center for Juvenile Justice, 1987). The American Correctional Association (1986) reports that in 1985 approximately 29,000 male juvenile offenders were being held in juvenile correctional facilities as a result of the court disposition of their cases. On the average, juveniles sentenced to youth correctional facilities are released to some type of community supervision within approximately six months, although the length of stay for any particular individual will vary according to the offense committed, individual characteristics, and court jurisdiction (Arnold & Brungardt, 1983; Edgar, Webb, & Maddox, 1987).

The philosophy and organization of juvenile treatment programs vary greatly, however they share the goal of equipping juveniles in contact with the criminal justice system in making a successful transition to community life (Gehring, 1984). In preparing incarcerated juvenile offenders for release most effective programs provide specific interventions aimed at remediating deficits in personal skills required to succeed in society (e.g., academic, behavioral, and vocational) (Romig, 1978). Treatment interventions for juvenile offenders under the age of 18 almost certainly will include some type of training conducted in a classroom environment (Arnold & Brungardt, 1983). The successful completion of high school (Needham & Grims, 1983) or participation in alternative programs (Shorthouse, 1985) greatly improve the chances that a juvenile will not have further contact with the criminal justice system.

The intent of this article is to examine the various aspects of behavior rating scales (e.g., uses, advantages, and selection criteria). Specifically, the Behavior Dimensions Rating Scale (BDRS), (Bullock & Wilson, 1989) which has recently been validated for use with juvenile offenders in correctional education programs, will be reviewed. Finally, the potential applications of the BDRS for use with juvenile offenders will be discussed.

Behavior Rating Scales

Professionals working with disturbed or disturbing individuals are frequently required to make intervention decisions based on the behaviors demonstrated by those individuals. Behavior rating scales are one method of identifying problem behaviors and quantifying them for decision making purposes (Cairns & Green, 1979). The use of behavior rating scales is widespread, particularly in schools and related settings (Skiba & O'Sullivan, 1987; Wilson, 1980).

What are Behavior Rating Scales?

Behavior rating scales are psychometric instruments which provide a structured guide for a rater to assess specific aspects of an individual's behavior. These assessments are based on the rater's direct observations, perceptions, and interactions with the individual being rated (Guilford, 1954). It requires the rater to evaluate a series of social interactions in light of cultural and contextual norms (Cairns & Green, 1979).

Uses of Behavior Rating Scales

Within educational settings, behavior rating scales have been used primarily to assist in preintervention assessment, which includes the identification of specific behavioral characteristics of individual subjects (e.g., aggression, behavioral disturbance, and hyperactivity) (Algozzine, 1980; Bullock & Wilson, 1986; Burke, 1977; Cassel, 1962; Cullinan, Schloss, Epstein, 1987; Epstein, Cullinan, Rosemier, 1983; McCarney, Leigh, & Cornbleet, 1983; Millman & Pancost, 1977; Pimm & McClure, 1969; Quay & Peterson, 1983; Walker, 1983.) The literature reports their use as aids in developing individual intervention plans and in the tracking of behavioral change (Bullock & Wilson, 1986; Wilson, 1980). Researchers and program evaluators have also made use of behavior rating scales (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1986; Bullock, Wilson, Sarnacki, & Campbell, (in press); Eaker,

Allen, Gray, & Heckel, 1983; Lukin, 1980; Quay & Love, 1977; Quay & Peterson, 1983; Richey, & Miller, 1987).

Advantages of Behavior Rating Scales

Behavior rating scales provide a systematic approach to behavioral assessment in which a standard set of relevant individual behaviors are considered. They facilitate data collection in that they require little time to complete (usually 5-10 minutes) and are inexpensive. In the case where direct observation of a subject by those responsible for assessment decisions (e.g., case managers or educational diagnosticians) is not feasible (e.g., students in different settings at different times of day), behavior rating scales may be the most efficient and relevant alternative for behavioral data collection (Bullock & Wilson, 1986; Cairns & Green, 1979; Haynes & Wilson, 1979).

Selection of an Appropriate Behavior Rating Scale

Criticisms regarding behavior rating scales are as widespread as their use (Saal, Downey, & Lahey, 1980). Concerns regarding the appropriateness of some may be justified. Wilson (1980) noted that "scales are often developed and employed in school settings with little or no evaluation of such factors as reliability, validity, sources of bias, or the utility of particular scales" (p. 58). Historically, behavior rating scales have been used with elementary-aged children (Spivack & Swift, 1973). A selected review of six behavior rating scales (Bullock & Wilson, 1989) revealed that norming samples in four of the six scales included approximately equal distributions of subjects across school-aged grade levels, the other two were normed using elementary school-aged subjects. Only two rating scales, the BDRS (Bullock & Wilson, 1989) and the Behavior Evaluation Scale (McCarney, et. al., 1983), were normed using a geographically representative national sample. Others were normed on data from clinical samples, urban centers, or geographically proximate school districts. Of the two nationally normed scales, only the BDRS norming population approximates an ethnically representative sample or includes a comparison group of identified emotionally disturbed/behaviorally disordered subjects.

Several factors should be considered when choosing a behavior rating scale. The characteristics of the population used during instrument validation should match the characteristics of the population to be assessed, otherwise extreme caution must be used when interpreting the results. Scales should maximize the potential for sensitivity in responses (i. e., a 7-point scale is better than a 2-point scale). The more clearly individual items are described, (i. e., item specificity), the more likely that responses will accurately reflect the existence of that behavioral item (Wilson, 1980).

Behavior Dimensions Rating Scale

The BDRS was developed and used to study the patterns of behaviors demonstrated by subjects with behavioral problems. Its characteristics have been influenced by numerous research studies (Bullock & Brown, 1970, 1972; Bullock & Zagar, 1980; Bullock, Wilson, Sarnacki, & Campbell, (in press); Bullock, Zagar, Donahue, & Pelton, 1985; Guetzloe, 1975; Johnson, 1983; Sarnacki, 1987; Wilson, Moore, & Bullock, 1987). The BDRS consists of 43 pairs of bipolar descriptors. Each descriptor is defined in the manual to avoid misinterpretation. Raters choose one of seven positions, which best represent the subject's behavior on a continuum between the bipolar descriptors. The 43 items comprise four subscales: (a) Aggressive/Acting Out, (b) Irresponsible/Inattentive, (c) Socially Withdrawn, and (d) Fearful/Anxious.

As previously mentioned, the BDRS was normed on a geographically representative sample of subjects in grades K-11 (N =1,942). The distribution of the sample was approximately equal across grade levels and included both emotionally disturbed/behaviorally disordered and non-handicapped male and female subjects (Bullock & Wilson, 1989).

The Use of Behavior Rating Scales with Juvenile Offenders

A review of the psychological and educational literature from 1977 to the present revealed only seven documented occurrences of the use of behavior rating scales with juvenile offenders. Behavior rating scales have been used to provide descriptive information, predict amenability to treatment interventions, measure treatment effects, and as a case management tool. Richey and Miller (1987) used a behavior rating scale to evaluate the academically related behaviors of male adolescents in a residential program. The Revised Behavior Problem Checklist (RBPC) (Quay & Peterson, 1983) has been used as an assessment tool in the initial classification of juvenile offenders. Gilliam and Scott (1987) used the RBPC to provide descriptive information about the characteristics of behaviorally disturbed juvenile offenders.

In research directed at improving assessment and prediction outcomes for juvenile offenders, Eaker et al., (1983) included the Adolescent Behavioral Rating Scale (Allen & Heckel, 1981) among the evaluative materials. Lukin (1980) and Quay and Love (1977) have also used behavior rating scales to measure the effect of treatment interventions with juvenile offenders.

Case management and program evaluation are administrative functions that use rating scales. Adequate case management begins with an assessment of the juvenile offender's relevant behavioral characteristics and makes use of measures which monitor those behaviors (Stumphauzer, 1985). Evaluation techniques di-

rected at assessing the impact of the program must provide data which measured change in targeted behaviors. Millman and Pancost (1977) suggest the use of clinical measures, such as behavior rating scales, over more rigorous quantitative measures when conducting program evaluation.

Purpose of this Study

The purpose of the present study was to determine whether the BDRS (Bullock & Wilson, 1989) has construct validity and is a valid instrument for use with juvenile offenders in correctional facilities. This investigation is relevant because numerous assumptions, some of which are discussed in this section, have appeared in the literature regarding the differences between general and correctional education settings and the professionals who work in them.

According to Cairns & Green (1979), the appropriate use of behavior rating scales require an assumption that raters share a common pool of theoretical concepts regarding the behaviors in question, as well as the same beliefs regarding the distribution of those behaviors within the population. The emphasis in correctional settings is on custody with the predominant concern being security (Arnold & Brungardt, 1983; Platt & Weinke, 1984), which is very different from the emphasis of the public schools. Brown (1985) and Romig (1978) have noted that correctional educators have traditionally tended to utilize different classroom management and instructional techniques from educators in public schools. This condition purportedly exists because of the body of knowledge and field of literature which has guided the correctional educator, the goals defined by the institutional setting, and the environment in which they work. Correctional facilities are organized to provide for the custody, treatment, educational, and vocational needs of assigned juveniles.

Youth placed in correctional facilities are not a representative sample of the youth found in regular educational settings. Not only have many experienced significant behavioral problems in regular school settings, but they also are disproportionately male, minority, and of a lower socioeconomic level (Vinter, Newcomb, & Kish, 1976).

Sampling Procedures

As with the initial validation study for the BDRS, the standardization sample was drawn from each of the four geographic regions identified by the United States Census Bureau (1983) (i. e. Midwest, Northeast, South, and West). Facilities participating in the validation study were selected from the American Correctional Association (ACA) Directory (1986) on the basis of their (a) willingness to participate and (b) ability to identify subjects meeting the desired characteristics of the standardization sample. The facilities were, by region: Midwest: Youth Development Center, NE; Illinois Youth Center - Harrisburg, IL; Northeast: Skillman Training Center for Boys, NJ; South: Samarkand Manor, NC; Stonewall Jackson School, NC; Central Oklahoma Juvenile Treatment Center, OK; Hillsborough Correctional Institution, FL; West: Adobe Mountain Juvenile Institution, AZ; Lookout Mountain School, CO.

Subjects included in the correctional education standardization sample met the following criteria. They were (a) male, (b) not identified as handicapped as defined by The Education for Children's Act of 1975 (P. L. 94-142) (20 USC 1401), (c) observed by their teacher for a minimum of 2 weeks, and (d) residing in a state operated juvenile correctional facility. Descriptive information regarding the age, ethnicity, and residence of the standardization sample is presented in Tables 1, 2, and 3.

Table 1

Distribution of the Standardized Sample by Age

	Percent of Standardized Sample N=560*
Age Group	%
11 - 12	**
13 - 14	6
15 - 16	30
17 - 18	47
19 - 20	5
21 - 22	**

*This data not provided on 81 subjects.
**Less than 1% of the sample size.

Table 2

Distribution of the Standardized Sample by Ethnicity

	Percent of Standardized Sample N=605*
Race/Ethnic Origin	%
Asian Pacific	0
Black	47
Caucasian	39
Native American	4
Hispanic	9
Other	1

*This data not provided for 36 subjects.

Table 3

Statistics on Norming Group: Geographic Region

Region	Number of Students
Midwest	191
Northeast	82
South	266
West	102
Total	641

Directors of Education in state operated juvenile correctional facilities were queried regarding their ability to identify juvenile offenders meeting the standardization criteria and the facility's willingness to participate in the validation study. A contact person in each participating facility distributed BDRS forms and instructions for completion to classroom teachers within that facility. Teachers completed the BDRS on selected juvenile offenders meeting the standardization criteria. The completed forms were collected by the on-site contact person and mailed to the researchers.

Method of Analysis

The initial step in the further validation of the BDRS for use with incarcerated youth in correctional settings is to determine whether the instrument has construct validity in those settings. The use of an instrument to measure the behavior of differing groups of individuals requires that the measurement characteristics of the instrument be the same for each group, thus allowing the interpretation to be the same (Cairns & Green, 1979). Numerically, these measurement characteristics, the interrelationships between variables, are found in the group variance-covariance matrix. While there are a number of ways to test if these matrices are the same, the use of multi-group confirmatory factor analysis is a recommended method for testing the equality of the variance-covariance matrices (Alwin & Jackson, 1981; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1979; Nunnally, 1978).

LISREL VI (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1981) is a computer program under SPSSX (1986) which, using linear structural equations, performs multi-group confirmatory factor analysis. A hierarchical approach is used to test the equality of group variance-covariance matrices. The first test is to determine whether the group variance-covariance matrices are invariant (equal). Subsequent tests may be used to locate differences in the matrices if they are not found to be invariant. The assessment of the equality of the variance-covariance matrices of the two groups requires the use of several indices, as no index is a singularly sufficient measure. LISREL VI provides two measures which may be used to assess the match between matrices; the chi square value and probability level and the goodness of fit index (GFI).

The sensitivity of the chi square statistic to sample size and violations regarding the assumption of the asymptotic properties of the variable requires a statistical modification when assessing whether the matrices are invariant (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). An incremental fit index (IFI) (Tucker & Lewis, 1973), calculated from the chi square statistic, provides an indication of the improvement in the fit between the data and the model (i.e., the equality of the group variance-covariance matrices) over a model which declares the variables are independent of each other.

The GFI is independent of sample size and is somewhat robust to violations of the assumptions regarding the asymptotic properties of the variables. The statistical distribution of the GFI is unknown, although the theoretical distribution is between zero and one (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1986).

RESULTS

The comparison of the variance-covariance matrices using the GFI yielded a result of .876 and an IFI of .962. Bentler and Bonett (1980) suggest that an IFI level of .90 is an indication of a relatively good fit between the data and the model estimates. Continued analysis of the data was not required since the matrices could be considered essentially the same and common measurement characteristics could be determined from a pooled variance-covariance matrix (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1986).

The finding that the BDRS is factorially equivalent for both groups, subjects in general educational settings and juvenile offenders in correctional educational settings, is important. The findings are significant for professionals dealing with delinquent youth because they provide a first step in establishing the validation of the use of the BDRS with juvenile offenders in correctional facilities and with invariant variance-covariance matrices, the instrument may be used in either setting with the same interpretation.

Implications for Practice

The identification of behaviorally disordered juvenile offenders in correctinal facilities is fraught with definitional, procedural, and informational problems. Prevalence estimates vary greatly (Gilliam & Scott, 1987). Nonetheless, administrative and judicial pressures require that correctional facilities identify and serve behaviorally disordered juvenile offenders assigned to those settings (Warboys & Shauffer, 1986).

Intra-agency Uses of the BDRS

The delivery of appropriate educational services is dependent upon the assessment process. The initial assessment of juvenile offenders entering correctional facilities is either accomplished by the receiving facility, by the courts, or by reception and diagnostic centers. Either facility is ill-prepared to adequately screen for the educational needs of incoming juvenile offenders with behavioral disorders, beyond assessing the current level of academic functioning (Gilliam & Scott, 1987). The availability of a behavior rating scale, validated using a standardized sample from correctional settings, will enhance the ability of correctional educators to meet the requirements of P. L. 94-142 by serving the educational needs of behaviorally disordered juvenile offenders. Additionally, behavioral data provided by classroom teachers offers educational decision-makers relevant information regarding the placement of non-handicapped juvenile offenders in correctional education classrooms and programs.

The BDRS can offer teachers, clinicians, and program evaluators a valid instrument to measure the effectiveness of classroom management techniques and therapeutic interventions, through the monitoring of individual juvenile offender behavioral adjustment and growth. In short, within correctional education facilities, the BDRS can be used with the same degree of confidence as within general educational settings for any of the functions for which behavior rating scales are typically employed.

Interagency Uses of the BDRS

The correlation between academic and behavioral difficulties in school and delinquent behavior is well established (Alexander, Cook, & McDill, 1978; Kelly & Balch, 1971; Schafer & Polk, 1976). There is evidence to suggest that when juvenile offenders return and successfully complete high school, they are less likely to be involved in criminal activity as adults (Needham & Grims, 1983). The reintegration of a juvenile offender into the community is critically important (Arnold, 1970; Burchard & Lane, 1982). Unfortunately, the components of a successful transition between juvenile correctional facilities and public school settings are abstruse and problematic (Edgar et al., 1987). Juvenile parole and after care programs are generally not considered successful (Gibbons, 1981; Roming, 1978). The BDRS can assist professionals involved in interagency efforts to provide transition services to juvenile offenders through improved data collection, case management, and program evaluation and research.

Data collection. Eaker, et al. (1983) call for the inclusion of a wider range of juvenile behaviors in the assessment of juvenile offenders. School behavior is of particular importance. Stumphauzer (1985) underlines the importance of assessing behavior across behavioral settings. As mentioned previously, behavior rating scales facilitate data collection. Since the BDRS is valid for use in both general educational and correctional education settings it may be used to assess classroom behaviors which would have meaning for educators in either setting.

Case management. Professionals charged with the supervision of juvenile offenders, as well as preincarceration and parole officers, are required to perform three functions: surveillance, counseling, and provision of services. Large caseloads and the need for behavioral information from a wide variety of settings complicate efficient cae management (Arnold & Brundgardt, 1983). The BDRS can assist case managers by providing a standardized quantifiable data collection instrument. This information can be used for initial assessment, monitoring of behavioral adjustment or progress, and case disposition decision-making.

Program evaluation and research. Increasingly, recidivism or revocation rates have been found to be inadequate measures of program success or theoretical utility (Elliott, 1980; Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1979). The Institute of Judicial Commission on Juvenile Justice Standards (1979) and Lukin (1980) call for the inclusion of additinal measures of behavioral change when evaluating program effectiveness. Grenier and Rondtree (1987) indicate that after peer association, school problems (e.g., absenteeism, inappropriate behavior, grades) are the best predictor of recidivism; therefore, the assessment of socially relevant behaviors at short intervals may serve to identify successful program components or conceptual links between behaviors and recidivism (Elliott, 1980).

Summary

Appropriately used, behavior rating scales have considerable potential for use with juvenile offenders. Within correctional facilities they can be used to assess individual educational and behavioral needs, monitor behavioral change, and evaluate program and therapeutic effectiveness. Perhaps even greater potential exists as an aid for case management where standardized quantifiable data collection can assist in deision-making, program evaluation, and research. The BDRS is nationally validated with juvenile offenders assigned to correctional education facilities. Its subscales can be used for populations in general educational and correctional education settings with the same interpretation.

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Biography

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Graduates from the Department of Correctional Services may pursue careers as juvenile or adult probation officers; counselors in institutions, halfway houses or community centers; institutional caseworkers or parole officers working with rape victims, spouse abuse, battered children, court administration, pre-trial diversion, and related social service and criminal justice fields.

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Students majoring in Security and Loss Prevention are prepared for a career in the following fields of loss prevention at the supervisory or management level: governmental (military, education, health, banking), industrial (private, public), retail (hotel/motel, restaurant, department stores), transportation (railroad, airport/airline, maritime), insurance (investigation, adjusting, inspection), health care facilities (hospital), and financial (banks).

The Traffic Safety Institute students may pursue careers in driver education, law enforcement, accident investigation, commerical driver education, safety agencies and organizations in both private and public sectors.

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Day Treatment Services

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Abstract

Day treatment centers, community based treatment programs for adolescents and their families, attempt to maintain youth in their home community by providing family centered assessment techniques and counseling services. This focus seeks to prevent or reduce institutionalization and out-of-home placements for juveniles. Important aspects of a successful program include: assessing the needs of the community and the individual, assessing treatment plans, providing counseling services, educational services, transitional services, and the use of the Citizen's Advisory Committee and volunteers.

Introduction

Day treatment centers are community based treatment programs for adolescents and their families. The primary mission is to maintain youth in their home community by providing family centered assessment techniques and counseling services. Problem behaviors are defined in terms of the familial system rather than isolating the youth to remedy the problem. This treatment modality has proven highly successful and cost effective.

The centers serve adolescent youth with social, behavioral, and/or emotional problems. Many of these youth have difficulty functioning in the regular or special education classrooms, but still have the capabilities to remain in the community. Youth may be admitted voluntarily by parent or school referrals; through court diversion or probation; by commitment as either status or delinquent offenders; and/or for aftercare services following placement in residential settings. While the size of the centers may vary, it is emphasized that referrals are accepted from a limited geographic area. Transportation costs and access to families make serving a large region prohibitive.

Day treatment may also be used in concert with out-of-home or restrictive settings. Youth who are placed in foster care or group homes adjunct to day treatment centers may attend the treatment program as well. Day treatment can also be utilized as transitional services for youth returning from restrictive environments to their families. In these cases, treatment planning by both placements is accomplished in one document or through coordinating pre-placement planning. Both programs work toward the same treatment goals, based on their resources and expertise. This ensures that residential services provided maintain youth in a restrictive environment for the shortest length of time necessary for the rehabilitation and then return them to appropriate settings.

Organization

The juvenile justice system in Kentucky is operated by the Department for Social Services located within the Cabinet for Human Resources. Two divisions within the Department provide treatment to juveniles: the Division of Family Services and the Division of Children's Residential Services. The Division of Family Services (DFS) provides community casework and intensive family counseling, including protective services for children and adults. Juvenile case managers are charged with supervision of youth in the community, recommendations through district courts for commitment and out-of-home placements, and aftercare supervision as youth return to the community. This focus allows the sending case manager to maintain case responsibility before, during, and after placements.

The Division of Children's Residential Services (DCRS) is charged with implementing an array of services. Programs within this Division include day treatment, group homes, residential facilities for delinquent and youthful offenders, and clinical settings. There are eighteen group homes serving one hundred and forty-four youth throughout the Commonwealth. Kentucky operates eleven treatment centers with a total daily population of four hundred and five delinquent and youthful offenders. The range of population of individual programs is between thirty-two and forty-seven. One forty-seven bed program is secure and the system has a capacity to secure another thirty beds, depending on the needs of the population. The Clinical Services Branch operates a fifty-two bed children's psychiatric hospital, two Re-Ed programs serving younger emotionally disturbed youth, and one coeducational community based program for thirty-two emotionally disturbed youth. Other branches offer services of assessment and placement, program development and training, and education.

The DCRS philosophy is to provide individualized treatment in the least restrictive setting possible. In this Division, day treatment is that setting. Whenever possible, youth are diverted to thirteen centers located throughout the Commonwealth. Six centers are operated directly by the State. Seven are administered through contracts with local vendors selected through a competitive bid process. Contract agencies include local boards of education, mental health associations, and local county governments and social services agencies.

The daily capacity of the centers range from twenty-two to seventy-five—a total capacity for the state of five hundred, fifty-eight. During the 1987 fiscal year, one thousand, thirty-five unduplicated clients were served by day treatment programs. The cost for administration and social services per day per client averages $16.00. Educational services per client per day are estimated to be equal, bringing the total cost per client to $32.00.

The Residential Services Tracking System recently completed a study reflecting recidivism data for four calendar years (January 1, 1983 through December 31, 1986). This study defines recidivism as the percentage of youth who exit into the community with an assigned case worker and who subsequently return to a DCRS program. The recidivism rate for day treatment services is 25 percent.

The centers are funded through four sources. The social services and administrative costs are budgeted by federal social service block grants and state general funds. This component in some programs is also offset by local dollars and match monies. This match occurs in contract agencies. The education component is funded by the local boards of education from the district in which the program is located. This money is generated by average daily attendance through basic and special education units. Also, the State Department of Education has stipulated general fund dollars for costs above revenue generated by attendance. Federal Chapter I appropriations are available for remedial education programs.

Program Overview

The efforts and resources of the program are directed to educating parents, agencies, and communities at large that problem and delinquent youth can be successfully treated and maintained at home. Changes in client behavior and effecting parental control are facilitated by increasing healthy communication between family members. Parent education and support groups are used to provide training in appropriate behavioral expectations and discipline techniques. The program design provides individual and group counseling to emphasize the youth's responsibility for their own behavior and to teach problem solving techniques.

A major component of the program is education. The program is designed to provide services during a normal school day. Academic testing is focused to provide individualized and remedial instruction. Vocational training and job placements may also be offered. Education personnel strive to help youth increase academic skills and grade levels. As treatment is completed, this service attempts to place youth in the most appropriate educational setting possible. Accurate testing data, together with educational gains made by the youth in the program, increase their potential for success.

While the focus of the program is geared toward individual youth and their families, the program objectives must include working with other agencies. Referrals are accepted from many sources including schools, courts, and local social services agencies. Also, there are youth or families whose needs exceed the resources of the program. This mandates working relationships between program staff and interfacing agencies. It is vital that treatment planning is coordinated and communication of progress or concerns are shared and understood by all agencies involved.

Community Assessment

Assessment is the focal point of a successful program. This assessment must occur on two levels: the needs of the community and the needs of individual children. The former determines the location of the program and the admission criteria. The second is an ongoing process that is basic to treatment.

The possibilities for programming are as varied as the type of communities that exist. Day treatment programs have existed in Kentucky beginning with LEAA funding in 1972. By 1982, six programs were located in urban areas, but no central management system existed. The Day Treatment Services Branch was created through the Governor's Executive Order in May, 1983. At that time it was decided to coordinate these diversion efforts and increase the number of programs available.

Three main pieces of data for each of the one-hundred and twenty counties were examined to determine the location of the program expansion. This data included adolescent census numbers and projected growth rates; numbers of youth being processed through district courts by probation or commitment as status or delinquent; and, substantiated abuse cases recorded by DFS. This data was correlated and existing community based programs were charted. Those counties which appeared consistently highest in all three areas were targeted for new day treatment centers.

Needs assessments must be conducted as a program is initiated. As previously stated, day treatment can serve a variety of youth displaying a wide range of problems. A thorough analysis of adolescents in the community can focus the program. This analysis, as Kentucky's, can include actual numbers of youth from census data. Court statistics including diversion, probation, and commitment rates, indicate the current community preference in disposition of juvenile criminal cases. Substantiated abuse cases, hospitalization, and rates of out-of-home placements may be added to help detect and project trends in juvenile cases.

Assessment of the community must also include existing resources. Resources should be examined under social service agencies, including the private sector. Since a large component of the treatment program is education, alternative education programs, special education units,

and experimental programming must be understood to ensure the day treatment program is fulfilling a need and compliments the education system. On behalf of clients, a resource file should be developed to indicate economic assistance, job training and placement opportunities, and mental health organizations.

Assessments should be done periodically. The population shifts as a result of migration and economic factors. Delinquency rates may increase or decrease, and the type of offenses may change in severity. Community resources respond to funding windfalls or shortfalls. A community based program must keep abreast of all these factors and be ready to adjust accordingly.

Recent assessment of referrals to Kentucky's programs indicate several factors. Referrals are accepted from seven basic sources. During Fiscal Year 1988, a total of one thousand and forty-nine referrals were made. Analysis of these referrals indicates 27.4 percent are made from parents or schools; 22.6 percent are from courts; and 43.2 percent came from the two divisions within the Department of Social Services. The remaining 6.8 percent originated from private child care or other agencies.

It must be noted that several agencies may be involved with the same child. It is also found that courts and schools attempt to provide services to youth in the least restrictive setting, even in their home community. Further analysis indicates that 39 percent of youth are admitted voluntarily, that is, to date no court action has taken place. Another 9 percent are involved in informal adjustment court actions and 20 percent are on probated status. The remaining 32 percent are committed to the Cabinet for Human Resources.

The referring charges or problems of the eight-hundred and nine youth admitted during the reporting period varied a great deal from program to program. The referring charges or problems ranged from delinquent offenses, such as assault, burglary, theft, and possession of controlled substances; to formal status offenses; to school or home related behavior problems. All charges or problems were assigned to one of four categories: delinquent, status, dependency, and other. The "other" category was specific to school, home, or community behavior problems not formally considered through a court process. Nearly 64 percent of all youth admitted had a history of either delinquent (252) or status (265) offenses.

Treatment Planning Assessment

Primary to any successful treatment program is the art of assessing the needs of the client. This process in day treatment is complex. Rather than a singular focus on the juvenile, assessment is family centered.

Case managers must interpret the child's behavior as symptomatic of family dynamics and communication patterns. The intent is to see problems in their proper context (i.e., what behaviors are a result of victimization, of economic or educational needs, or of insufficient support systems). Treatment then begins by processing major events in the family life and the child's development by gathering available, accurate information.

Current data for youth admitted to day treatment for Fiscal Year 1988 depicts a troubling family picture. This data enables the individual program to identify problem areas impacting the youth's lifes. One example is family income. Data reveals that nearly 50 percent of the families served by these centers have an income of less than $10,000 annually. Additionally, another 32 percent of the families had annual incomes of less than $20,000.

The economic picture of deprivation, coupled with the living arrangements of many of our youth, point towards various family support deficits. The largest number of the admissions (299) live with their mother only. Another one hundred and eighty seven youth reside outside their natural parent's home in either group homes, foster care, other institutions, or with relatives. This type of information is an essential component of an individualized treatment plan.

It needs to be stressed that both program and client assessments are initial steps. This cannot be a stagnant process. This work must contain quality and a commitment of program staff that is ongoing. Initial premises should be reexamined and challenged, but most importantly, proactively changed, rather than changed through reaction.

Treatment Planning

Active participation by the child and family in goal-setting to achieve change and redirection from negative behavior is a major component of treatment. Treatment teams coordinate this process from the point of admission through release and a period of aftercare. The primary treatment agents, preferably consisting of a social worker, a paraprofessional, and a teacher, are assigned on intake and follow the child through the entire treatment process. Minimally, teams must consist of the social worker and teacher, with paraprofessionals supplementing this approach by ensuring the daily routine and functions of the program.

The purpose of a treatment team is to work from an interdisciplinary approach focusing on the needs of each youth. In a treatment team approach, roles are coordinated in order to maximize the use of an individual's education and skills. This team emphasis builds a cohesion that maximizes time and duties. The level of staff participation created in this treatment environment supersedes disciplines. A positive environment should be the logical result, establishing excellent role models for youth and a program geared toward success.

Input from all staff is encouraged in matters affect-

ing the operation of the team. It is strongly believed that this approach increases the motivation of all staff because individuals have vested interests in the process of treatment. A team approach puts into practice the philosophy that services are most effectively delivered if all staff know that their contributions are welcomed and essential.

The treatment plan is a personalized program for each juvenile and family. It is the agenda for change. A comprehensive treatment plan is completed within two weeks of admission. Treatment plans discuss problematic behaviors to be resolved through measurable goals and objectives. Each task is assigned to a specific individual with a time schedule for achievement or progress review. All members of the team contribute to the formulation and revision of treatment plans. Any outside service agencies involved with the child or family are an integral part of treatment. Such agencies can contribute assessment data, social or educational histories, and supportive services. Cultural factors must also be included in this assessment. An indication of the need is seen in the data involving race. The demographics for the State indicate a black population of 7.1 percent, while day treatment statistics reveal 17.5 percent of youth admitted are black. This mandates that cultural factors should be addressed during the course of treatment.

All family members have input and specific activities detailed in the plan regarding their participation in the program. The youth and parents must be involved in treatment planning and all subsequent changes. Such a process empowers the family to assume responsibility and control over factors precipitating the presenting problems. The youth will develop social and individual skills designed to extinguish negative behavior patterns. The progress of the juvenile and family is reported on a regular basis to the family, committing judge or authority, and the school system.

While treatment goals must be measurable, they must first be geared toward success. The language used should be positive and easily understood by all parties. Treatment plans should have time frames designed to reevaluate progress and to allow for revision. It is then the responsibility of treatment teams to design the initial goals and objectives to be small, easily achievable steps toward the ultimate goals. As the youth progresses and learns new skills, the original objectives increase in difficulty. These small successes should meet with rewards, building momentum and motivation to go even further. The target goal is for the family and juvenile to become skillful enough to function with support systems outside the treatment environment.

Methods of intervention can include individual and group counseling with family counseling being a basic to this system. Educational groups may be offered. Topics encouraged include substance abuse prevention, parenting and discipline techniques, and communication skills. Support groups both for adults and youth may evolve either by program design or at the request of clients. Case managers, after assessment of family issues, may choose to refer clients to appropriate community resources. If this type of intervention is pursued, it is done in concert with the program treatment plan.

Counseling Services

Individual counseling is defined as a specific interpersonal intervention by staff in response to defined problems of youth admitted for treatment. The focus of individual counseling is behavioral change in the youth rather than insight and consists of a variety of interactions designed to promote these behavioral changes. Individual counseling begins with information gathering and continues with the assessment of factors contributing to the problem, identification of alternative courses of action to address the problem, and plan of implementation and evaluation of progress. It is different from other helping strategies in that it is a structured process directed by a counselor under controlled variables (i.e., one to one, confidential, planned, private sessions with follow-up revolving around a specific plan). Many nonverbal youth may benefit from other treatment interventions more appropriate to the youth's needs. A staff member may communicate spontaneously with youth in the course of daily interactions in a way that supports and promotes the youth's progress as defined above. Given that at any one time, staff members assume many roles within programs, individual counseling may be conducted by other members of the team as designated by the individual treatment plan.

Group counseling is defined as the structured, planned series of treatment interventions with more specific common issues, conflicts, and concerns. Group counseling is done in conjunction with other strategies in the overall treatment process. The centers recognize that treatment needs of children are individualized and therefore, not all youth may benefit from group counseling. Such exclusions are documented by the youth's treatment record. A commitment exists to the ongoing improvement of social skills for youth. Consistent with established Social Learning Theory, principles of Social Group Work, and principles of Developmental Psychology, CRS recognizes the importance of group living experiences and learning opportunities in shaping a child's behavior.

One of the primary goals of the centers in working with youth, is to ensure that they remain in or return to a family setting most likely to provide the permanency, support, and nurturing that all youth need. To ensure this, programs act as a supportive resource to the family. The day treatment staff make every reasonable attempt to involve families as an integral part of treatment. This involvement includes; treatment planning, family counseling, parent education, and parent support groups.

Educational Services

Academic services are extremely important in facilitating change with these youth. Many youth have experienced difficulty in a traditional school setting. These problems may include learning disabilities, not attaining appropriate grade levels, truancy, and defiances of authority. The mechanisms for successful education follows the same process as treatment.

Educational assessments need to be made as the youth is admitted. This assessment begins with the acquisition of available school records and previous services offered. Pretests are used by day treatment education staff to further understand what the youth has retained. This assessment then allows educators to design an Individualized Education Plan (IEP) that compliments the treatment plan. While federal and state laws mandate IEP's only for youth with identified handicaps, it is encouraged that these plans be written for all youth.

Classrooms may appear non-traditional. The intent is to allow juveniles to work at their own level at a pace that ensures success. This individual work is often remedial and should also be age appropriate. As with treatment planning and as the youth learns and builds skills, the plan is adapted to increase the difficulty of assignments.

Given this system and national data regarding grade level and actual level of functioning, individualized instruction is mandated. Histories of youth admitted reveal that the average age of youth is 14.9 years, with the largest population being fourteen to sixteen years of age. Following this data is the breakdown of reported grade attainment. This data shows that the majority of youth admitted are two years behind their peers in grade attainment. However, closer assessment shows that the majority of youth, in fact, function on grade levels 1 through 5. This fact is also compounded by the data which indicates that 40 to 50 percent of youth served in treatment facilities are educationally handicapped.

Post-tests are used to give program staff an understanding of individual progress and academic gains. These results are then shared with the receiving school or appropriate educational setting. Cumulative test results allow for program evaluation and improvement.

Transitional Services

Transition is as valuable a component of a community based program as it is in a residential setting. In day treatment, transition is provided by pre-release and follow-up services. Both are used to maintain the success the youth and family have achieved in treatment.

Pre-release is designed as the treatment and education plans evolve. Planning for release can begin at admission. The purpose of pre-release is to provide treatment services to the youth after placement in a traditional education setting. This period is usually short in duration, lasting four to six weeks. It allows case managers to monitor the juvenile's adjustment and support the family's progress. Additionally, a network is formed between program staff and the receiving school or agency. Information can be shared to help others understand the youth's progress and needs.

Follow-up is a periodic check of the youth's and family's situation. Contacts are maintained with education systems, court personnel, and community resources. If technical assistance can be helpful to these systems, program staff can take this opportunity to do so. These contacts are recorded and used to improve communication with community programs and enhance day treatment services.

Citizen's Advisory Committee and Volunteers

As community involvement and support is necessary to ensure the success of each youth, both an advisory council and volunteer recruitment is essential to this program.

The Citizens' Advisory Committee provides representation of community leaders. The purpose is to provide the community at large with a better understanding of the program. The committee provides the program a broad body to draw upon for talent, ideas, and help. The concept provides an objective look and insight that might normally be overlooked by program staff.

Volunteers serve in roles which are complementary to staff. Under supervision and following prescribed treatment methods, volunteers may assist in specific program areas such as academics, physical education, and recreation. Special talents and skills of volunteers enhance the quality of the overall program as well as ensure the success of individual youth.

The community is a vital and absolute component of any day treatment program. Community resources are sought after and used for the advancement of families and youth served by the program. Lists of community resources are kept by program staff for referrals and opportunities. These services and resources are written into the treatment plan as individual assessments warrant.

The surrounding community can be the greatest advocate of these programs. Volunteers and citizens' advisory groups provide support through tangible services such as tutoring, foster grandparents, and fund raising for recreation and incentives for youth. Perhaps more importantly is the aspect of public relations. One of the most difficult obstacles to overcome is the belief that difficult youth must be removed from the community in which they experienced problems or committed crimes. As volunteers and the public become involved with the program, they begin to experience the change that youth are capable of making. This can foster support for indi-

vidual youth and the efforts of the program staff. Opinions of these citizens are valued and accepted by the community.

Summary

Day treatment services are a multidiscipline approach to treating juveniles while they reside in their home community. These disciplines provide social and educational programs to troubled youth and their families. These services have proven to be effective in reducing out-of-home placements, institutionalization, and in decreasing the length of stay of youth who are placed in restrictive environments. Needs assessments indicating density of population and delinquent activity ensure that programs can serve a specific geographic area where the need for community based services can have the most impact.

It is the best of all possible worlds in juvenile services. Social workers and educators not only have the youth to work with, but the social systems that impact the juvenile and their behavior. These systems include families, peer groups, schools, court personnel, and the local community. The focus of treatment involves dealing with problem and delinquent behaviors by counseling families and juveniles in their true environment. Such treatment mandates clients to test and refine new skills and knowledge on a daily basis.

While the day treatment approach is exciting, it is also challenging to professionals. There are various hurdles in the every day function of the program. Drugs and alcohol are readily accessible to the youth and they may bring these substances into the programs. Violence and criminal behavior are present in family histories and their daily lives. Youth run away and display self destructive behaviors. Families are transient and demonstrate various degrees of resistance to interventions.

It is a model that can be used to establish one individual program or a statewide network operated by private agencies, school systems or government agencies. Day treatment programs are the least restrictive treatment environment for youth and can be adapted to serve pre-delinquent, delinquent, and emotionally disturbed youth, as well as provide transitional services.

This intensity, both positive and negative, develops a program that cannot be considered dull or routine. Staff develop their skills to meet whatever needs exist in individual youth or communities. A team effort between case managers and educators evolves, maximizing talents and resources. The result is a program that benefits the entire community. Once established, day treatment is a valued asset to judges, school administrators, and others striving to help youth.

Biography

Linda Bowling is Manager of Day Treatment Services for the Kentucky Department for Social Services, Cabinet for Human Resources. She is a consultant for the American Correctional Association and has over fourteen years in the field of Juvenile Justice. She is a member of the International Correctional Educational Association and the Correctional Education Association. Ms. Bowling is Chair of an Interagency Task Force between the Kentucky Department of Education and the Cabinet for Human Resources. In addition, she is the Author of the Kentucky Youth in Transition Project, funded by the Department for Social Services.

Leo Hobbs, Assistant Branch Manager for the Department for Social Services, Cabinet for Human Resources, assisted in the collection of data for this article.

Eastern Kentucky University

Eastern Kentucky University, a member of the Commonwealth's system of regional universities, is the culmination of more than a century of higher education development on its 350-acre main campus at Richmond.

Beginning with the 1874 founding of Central University, continuing with Walters Collegiate Institute from 1901-1906, and perpetuated by today's modern Eastern, a university over 300 major degree options, it stands as a testimonial to its founders.

Historic Richmond, where the famed Blue Grass region meets the foothills of the Cumberlands, is an urban college community of about 25,000 in a rich agricultural area. Madison County is considered one of the largest beef cattle-producing counties east of the Mississippi, and the Richmond burley market is among the tobacco belt's largest. New inter- and intra-state highway systems enhance Richmond's accessibility. Interstate 75 (north-south) passes within a mile of the campus and I-64 (east-west) is only 30 minutes away. Kentucky expressways — the Blue Grass, Mountain, Daniel Boone, and Cumberland Parkways — are also less than an hour's drive from Richmond.

Winners Circle: A Career Approach To Reaching Troubled Youth

Patricia Spaniol
Kim Cleberg

Abstract

To be a winner in today's society it is important to be educated, skilled, and employed. The Winners Circle Program assisted troubled youth who had dropped out of school by enhancing their academic and employment skills. A few of the opportunities the program provided were: GED remediation, tutoring, building basic computer skills, interest/aptitude testing, job search skills, job retention skills, career planning, goal setting, and counseling. Assisting a student in choosing a career goal is one of the key elements in helping a youth succeed. The computer was the major motivational tool utilized by this program. The Winners Circle met the diversion needs of troubled youth who were referred by courts and social services.

Introduction

The court systems of the United States have been experiencing large increases in their youth offender cases (Synder & Finnegan, 1987). The youth offender is also classified by many agencies as a troubled youth. The paradigmatic troubled youth is 16-18 years old, economically disadvantaged, a high school dropout and/or is chronically truant.

Court designated workers and social service agencies are placing troubled youth in diversion programs, in hope that the youth will be diverted from the court system. The workers look for diversion programs that will have a positive impact on the goals of the youth. A great many of the programs selected are employment or career oriented (Barnard & Wentling, 1987).

Even though many troubled youth do not want to appear in court, it is difficult to interest them in diversion programs. Motivating troubled youth to enroll and complete career programs is one of the difficult functions of the court designated worker and social services. Once placed in a diversion program there is a high expectancy for success. In cases where the youth is not successful there is a greater chance that the youth will become adjudicated. The idea of diversion programs is not only to reduce the court's role, but to help troubled youth become good citizens.

There is a need for better diversion programs, which stress motivation. The diversion program must gain the interest of the youth. The computer is an excellent tool for motivation. While much research has been done on computer-assisted instruction, in basic school subjects such as math, science, and reading, almost none has been done on career instruction using the computer.

The motivation of youth toward positive goals is a challenging project. The troubled youth of society are costly in terms of social service needs, court appearances, probation services, incarceration, and future problems. Society can take action by placing these youth in diversion programs at the onset of delinquency or in the end pay the high cost of incarceration.

To be a winner in today's society it is important to be educated, skilled and employed. The Winners Circle Program assisted 16-18 year old, economically disadvantaged, high school dropouts, classified as troubled youth with their career decisions and employment skills through the use of a computer. The program met the diversion needs of troubled youth referred by the court designated workers and social service agencies.

Review of Related Literature

The troubled youth of the nation are of increasing concern. According to Snyder and Finnegan (1983) there were 216,900 cases classified as status offenses: running away, truancy, curfew violations, ungovernability and liquor violations. Many of these cases were assigned to diversion programs.

The problem of troubled youth has been studied periodically over the decades. As the world becomes more technologically advanced, the problems of troubled youth become more complex. Keeping these youth from advancing to crimes that are felonies is a difficult task and all possible resources must be utilized.

The computer has been used successfully for several years in the area of teaching. It has only been in recent years that educational institutions have begun to look at additional applications of the computer. One such application is critical thinking skills. *Logo* was developed to teach general thinking skills. It appears that *Logo* can be taught using different approaches, the most promising is the mediation method. According to Delclos, Littlefield, and Bransford (1985) computers are powerful tools if used properly. Though *Logo* is used mostly for computer programming it could be of value in helping troubled youth increase their thinking skills with applications placed on career goals.

Galagan (1987) found advantages and disadvantages to using computers in training programs. One of the main advantages was the increase in learning in a shorter period of time. The main disadvantage was the lack of personal contact. These should be taken into consideration in designing a computer-assisted program. Another advantage was the increased success rate of the learner. Computer based training has had a positive effect on the majority of learners.

Computer-assisted instruction has been effective in increasing the student's performance and improving attitudes, yet there are issues that have not been resolved. According to Goetzfried and Hannafin (1985) one issue that has been recurring is the locus of instructional control in computer-assisted design.

Adaptive control requires the student to complete all tasks correctly to advance to the next lesson. Learner control with advisement allows the student the choice of continuing to the next lesson without correctly completing all lessons. Learner control alone gives students control only over the pace of the lesson.

Achievement differences were not found using the three strategies mentioned, but there was a significant difference in the learning efficiency and instructional time. It appears that in designing a computer-assisted program the locus of instructional control would need to be a consideration.

Other conditions that have an affect on computer-assisted instruction achievement are cooperation, competition, and individualization. The study by Johnson, Johnson and Stanne (1986) stated that cooperative learning increased achievement and accuracy. The individualistic condition did not increase achievement test scores. One additional fact that was asserted was that students in the individual condition did not like working on the computer as much as students in the cooperative and competitive conditions.

The use of computer-assisted career guidance is a relatively new field and there is only limited research available. *Discover* and *Systems of Interactive Guidance and Information* (SIGI) are two systems of computer-assisted career guidance. These systems according to Sampson, Jr., Shahnasarian, and Reardon (1987) are used by many institutions in helping students make career decisions, but additional resources seem to be used in most cases. There is a lack of research on the effects of these types of career guidance.

Summary of Related Literature

Delclos et al., (1985), stated that the computer is a useful tool. Galagan (1987) suggests that lack of personal contact may be a problem in programs that use computers. Locus of instructional control according to Goetzfried et al. (1985) should be addressed in designing a program. Johnson et al. (1986) found cooperation in learning increases achievement with computer-assisted learning.

Career guidance as offered by such programs as *Discover* and *SIGI* are, according to Sampson, Jr. et al., (1987) limited, but have possibilities. A great deal of additional research needs to be done on career computer-assisted instruction.

Definition of Terms

Motivation - Passing the career course with a grade of 90 percent or higher.

Economically disadvantaged - Income below the federal poverty guidelines.

High school dropout - One who leaves school on his/her own volition before graduating from high school.

Troubled youth - 16-18 year old who has been arrested, at least one time for one of the following offenses: public intoxication; driving while under the influence of alcohol; truancy; possession of drugs; curfew violation, or running away from home.

Program Design

The Winners Circle Program was designed to motivate troubled youth toward positive career goals. The computer and software were the motivational tools. The program did not place the participants into employment, but assisted them with their employment search after they completed the program.

The Winners Circle Program consisted of four phases: assessment and testing, basic education, employability skills, and motivation and counseling. Each phase was individualized to meet the needs of the participant.

The educational and social needs of the participant were determined in phase one. Each participant took the Adult Basic Education (TABE) Test to determine their reading, math, and language level. The test results were used to prepare their individualized education plan which provided the participants with proper remediation.

In phase two, basic education, computer-assisted instruction was proven to be the most effective method of helping participants reach their academic goals. The computer provided immediate positive reinforcement for participants. Due to the availability of diverse educational software, the aspirations of any participants without regard to level could be met. The computer was not only educational but entertaining for the participant. The computer also allowed the instructor additional flexibility in teaching various subject matter at the same time. The Winners Circle Program through the use of the computer assisted participants in attaining a GED in less time than traditional GED programs.

The third phase, employability skills, consisted of interest/aptitude testing, career exploration, goal planning, job shadowing, resume writing, job retention skills, entrepreneurial education, educational and vocational planning, interviewing techniques, and job search skills.

Career Finder, a software program, was utilized for assessing possible employment goals. This program supplies the participant with a printout of possible career choices, including salary and employment prospect information, based on an analysis of their responses.

Shadowing work experience was very effective in assisting participants with career decisions. Some participants have been placed within the areas of news photography, physical therapy, food services, and busi-

ness offices. Shadowing provided the participant two to five days of hands-on experience in a field of their choice.

This method of career exploration needs to be implemented. Due to the hands-on approach of job shadowing the participant was able to understand what each job entailed. Some participants had negative experiences such as: "A dog could bite the person who was giving aid"; "Nurses can have cranky patients"; and "social workers hear very depressing stories". There were also positive experiences such as: "Mentally retarded patients can learn"; "emergency room nurses can save lives"; and "Teachers can make a difference". Participants were able to find answers to their questions about different jobs.

The computer was utilized for employment interviewing, using the *Micro Art of Interviewing*. *Resume Writer I* and *Resume Writer II* were excellent software programs for writing resumes. *The Cover Letter* was another software application that worked well for the participants. The participants found *Living With Your Paycheck* and *Filling Out A Job Application* software packages very helpful while using the computer.

The final phase, motivation and counseling, covered a variety of areas. Self-esteem, good citizenship, success, teen pregnancy, parenting, breaking the AFDC cycle, and drugs and alcohol are just a few. Many different video tapes were used with success such as: *Drunk and Deadly*, *Born in the USA*, and *Dr. Wayne Dyer*.

Television videos and planned exercises helped stimulate discussion in group sessions. Many participants shared their personal experiences with the class. It was found in the group discussions that problems could be resolved and positive changes implemented. These discussion groups were very beneficial for the participants.

Conclusions

Success for this program was defined as becoming employed, entering vocational school, or entering college plus the completion of twenty Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) employability competencies with a grade of at least 80 percent. Also, twelve basic JTPA education competencies had to be met with a grade of at least 80 percent.

Employability and education competencies were met by 81 percent of the participants. Of the 100 participants over a four year period, 48 percent gained employment, 20 percent entered college or vocational school, 22 percent had not entered the labor force due to family obligations, and 10 percent could not be reached for follow-up purposes. The success rate for participants taking the GED was 94 percent on their first attempt.

The Winners Circle Program provided a diversion opportunity for many troubled youth. This program could be replicated by other institutions and agencies with positive results. Computer-assisted career instruction has proven to be an excellent tool for motivating troubled youth to achieve their GED and employment skills. This program was implemented at Somerset Community College, Somerset, Kentucky and was funded through the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA).

The true success of the program can be measured by the success of its participants. A former student, now employed as a cross country truck driver, wrote in a follow up survey, "...if I did not go to the Winners Circle I would not be a winner." This student felt the Winners Circle made him a winner. The truth of the matter is that this student was a winner the day he walked into the Winners Circle office. If society today wants to avoid problems with troubled youth, it must be willing to implement diversion programs such as the Winner's Circle.

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Biography

Patricia Spaniol was the Coordinator/Instructor of the Winners Circle Program. She is currently employed by Eastern Kentucky University as a District Training Assistant. She is a certified teacher for grades 7-12. Ms. Spaniol received a B.A. degree from the University of Kentucky, Lexington and her M.A. degree from Eastern Kentucky University, Richmond.

Kim Cleberg worked for the Winner's Circle program as an instructor. She was instrumental in the development of this paper.

Results of a Nationwide Survey on the Characteristics of Transition Programs for Incarcerated Handicapped Youth

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Joe P. Sutton

Abstract

Little information is available on transition programs operated by state youth correction agencies for handicapped and nonhandicapped adjudicated youth. This article provides a discussion of the results from a nationwide survey regarding characteristics of transition programs for this population that was conducted in midsummer of 1987. In addition to discussing the extent and characteristics of transition programs, different types of programs based on patterns of survey responses will be presented.

Introduction

Effective and meaningful special education programming should provide a variety of services for handicapped students. This is especially important for incarcerated handicapped youth who, in addition to their various handicaps, suffer from problems of social deviance and maladjustment. Comprehensive programming should address academic and social needs of handicapped offenders as well as facilitate their transition into society upon release from the correctional institution.

In the public school setting, transition deals primarily with the effective movement of handicapped adolescents to adult life situations, including work opportunities and job training (Johnson, Bruininks, & Thurlow 1987; Rusch & Phelps 1987). Within correctional settings transition also occurs when adjudicated handicapped youth exit correctional facilities and re-enter their respective communities (Edgar, Webb, & Maddox 1987; 251). Historically, transition has not been a primary concern in programming for handicapped offenders. Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford (1985), report that, unfortunately, "transition programs have been the most neglected element of correctional education efforts".

Recent attention on transition for incarcerated handicapped youth has focused on the components which should comprise ideal effective transition programs (Wolford, 1987), the role of social skill training in conjunction with transition (Nelson, 1988), and descriptions of several model transition programs (Karcz 1987; Maddox, Webb, Allen, Faust, Abrams, & Lynch 1984; Webb & Maddox 1986; Wolford 1987). What has not been addressed to date is the number of state youth correction agencies nationwide that have transition programs currently in operation for the overall population of adjudicated youth and for handicapped offenders specifically.

The gathering of such information would prove valuable in identifying those state agencies that are in need of initial program development and other state agencies that may require modifications in their ongoing programs based on suggested ideal programming from the literature. Additionally, tapping this information should allow researchers to delineate both the quality and quantity of transition programs operated by the state youth correction agencies nationwide.

The purpose of the present survey was to investigate (a) the extent to which transition programs for the broader population of incarcerated youth (including both handicapped and nonhandicapped students) exist across the country, (b) some characteristics of those programs, and (c) the different types of programs based on patterns of survey responses.

Method

The primary data collection instrument used in this study was a questionnaire. The investigators generated four primary objectives of interest from which questionnaire items were developed. The four objectives required collection of data in the following areas: (a) the goals of transition programs; (b) several key components of transition programs; (c) information on persons who operated the programs; and (d) students served by the programs.

The investigators' purpose in collecting information on these areas was based on a number of rationales. Determination of program goals was important since goals usually dictate the direction of a program and provide the basis for formulating guidelines. Goals can also be strong indicators of the range of services, whether educational, social, or vocational, that will be provided to both handicapped and nonhandicapped offenders. The desire to probe certain program components (e.g., interagency collaboration and record sharing) was reflective of the emphasis of these components in recent literature. The rationale for collecting information on personnel was based on the belief that training and qualifications of transition personnel does have an effect on the quality of a transition program and the degree to which goals are effectively operationalized. Finally, with regard to students served by the programs, it was important to determine whether the programs overall demonstrated equity in service delivery to all incarcerated youth, (i.e., both handicapped and nonhandicapped students).

Specifically, questionnaire items addressed the different types of transition program goals, the commencement of the transition process, the existence of interagency collaboration, the types of agencies with which collaboration occurs, and whether student record sharing takes place between agencies. Additional items were designed to determine whether or not there was a program director, the program director's title, the involvement of other persons outside the agency in the transition process, the minimum job qualifications for all transition agents, and work locations for transition personnel.

A final set of questions addressed the types of students served by the transition programs, whether all age groups of students were served by the program, and whether records were maintained on the type of student placement upon transition and students' post-placement status over time.

Content validity for the survey was established through use of a panel of experts. The panel consisted of two professors in a special education doctoral program at a major research institution in the Southeast. Panel members were asked to inspect the questionnaire items and to judge the extent to which the items on the survey adequately corresponded with the survey objectives. The panel reviewed the instrument on three separate occasions and provided numerous suggestions for refinement and improvement. The original instrument was modified after each review to include the suggestions made by the panel members.

The questionnaire with accompanying letter of explanation was distributed by mail to the Chief Administrators/Directors of Youth Corrections in fifty states and the District of Columbia in mid-summer of 1987. The administrators were asked to respond to the survey items regarding transition programs. Those not responding personally or who did not have direct access to the information delegated the task to a designee or the director of the transition program. For purposes of this survey, transition programs were defined as those programs operated by the state agency which were specifically designed to facilitate transition/reentry of incarcerated juvenile delinquents back into society.

Follow-up postcards were mailed in the early fall of the same year. Twenty-seven (54 percent) of the states completed and returned the questionnaire. States not responding to the questionnaire were contacted via telephone in an effort to acquire the desired information. Data collection was concluded in March of 1988, which resulted in a final sample of 37 states (74 percent). Regional representation was as follows: Northcentral, 58 percent; Northeast, 67 percent; South, 94 percent; and West, 62 percent.

Data Analysis

Analysis of the questionnaire data consisted of (a) determination of those states currently operating transition programs, (b) compilation of survey items for a profile of characteristics of transitions programs from a national perspective, and (c) grouping of state programs based on similar patterns of positive responses to several survey items. Since this study was basically descriptive in nature, measures of central tendency were calculated for all parts of data analysis.

Because one-half of the survey contained open-ended items, the initial task was to classify the item responses. This procedure basically involved continual comparing and sorting of the responses for each of the items by the investigators until all responses for an item could be subsumed under one of several possible categories. The total number of categories of responses for a given item would emerge as all responses were considered. Exact and similar responses were matched at the beginning to form a category of a particular kind. Formulation of additional categories were then created for items having broad ranges of responses that were conceptually similar. The number of categories of responses for the open-ended items ranged from 3 to 5 categories.

To insure consistency in the classification of responses, a graduate student not associated with this study was asked to classify the open-ended items given the same rules and definitions used by the investigators. Interrater agreement was then calculated (total agreements divided by total agreements plus disagreements) and resulted in an agreement coefficient of .89.

Survey Results

States with Transition Programs

Table 1 presents a summary of the number of responding states per region that were operating a transition program at the time the survey was administered.

TABLE 1
Number of States Surveyed by Region that have Transition Programs

Region	Total Number of States in Region	Number and Percentage of Responding States	Number and Percentage of Responding States with Programs
Northcentral	12	7 (58%)	4 (57%)
Northeast	9	6 (67%)	5 (83%)
South	17	16 (94%)	13 (81%)
West	13	8 (62%)	6 (75%)
TOTALS	51	37 (73%)	28 (78%)

Note. Specific responding states per region with transition programs are as follows: Northcentral (Kansas, Nebraska, Ohio, Wisconsin); Northeast (Pennsylvania, Maine, New Hampshire, New York, Rhode Island); South (Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Georgia, Florida, Kentucky, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia); and West (California, Colorado, Hawaii, Montana, Nevada, Washington).

Though it is encouraging that the majority of the state youth correction agencies that responded (78 percent) are presently operating some type of transition program, it is clear that not all adjudicated delinquents represented by these youth correction agencies nationwide are being provided transitional services. Translated into approximate proportional numbers, for every four out of five (78 percent) students that receive transitional services from transition programs operated by state youth correction agencies across the United States, approximately one out of five (22 percent) does not. The problem appears to be even more serious in certain regions. For example, based on our data, only a little more than half (57 percent) of the adjudicated youth population in the Northcentral region are receiving transitional services.

Characteristics of Transition Programs

Table 2 presents the most frequently occurring responses for each of the survey items for transition programs overall. The data reported in this table reflect only the 28 states that indicated a transition program existed. (Nine states indicated that a transition program did not exist and therefore did not complete the remainder of the survey.) In some instances for those states having programs, information on the characteristics of the programs was not available.

The major goals reported for transition programs appeared to represent three main areas of focus: educational, social, and vocational. Fifty-six percent (15 of 27) declared three types of program goals, as opposed to having only one type (e.g., educational) or a combination of two types (e.g., educational and vocational) of goals. Survey responses for educational goals centered mainly on the development and placement of students in educational programs upon reentry into the community. Responses for social goals include: (a) facilitation of living arrangements; (b) self-help/social/survival skill training; (c) improvement of self-concept; (d) student awareness of social services; (e) progress follow-up; (f) development of "crime-free" attitudes; and (g) remediation of attitudinal deficits. Vocational goals addressed the areas of: (a) career-vocational assessment; (b) job training; and (c) vocational placement. Interestingly, social goals were the only type of goal, whether reported singularly or in combination with the other two types, that was mentioned by one-hundred percent of the programs.

Almost half of those states having transition programs (13 of 27) indicated that the transition process theoretically begins at the time of the student's commitment. The remaining states responded that the transition process begins "within 30 days of commitment" (5 of 27), "during commitment" (3 of 27), "3 to 6 months prior to release" (3 of 27), and "4 to 6 weeks prior to release" (3 of 27).

TABLE 2
Most Frequent Responses to Survey Items Relating to Transition Programs (N=28)

Characteristic Surveyed	Most Frequent Response	Occurrence	Percentage
Program Components:			
1. Type(s) of program goals	ED, SOC, & VOC	15/27	56%
2. Commencement of transition process	At Students' Commitment	13/27	48%
3. Importance of inter-agency collaboration	Extremely	21/27	78%
4. Agency type(s) with which collaboration occurs	ED, SOC, & VOC	15/27	56%
5. Sharing/exchanging of student records	Only School Records Routinely	9/25	36%
Transition Personnel:			
6. Presence of a director to overseee the program	yes	22/27	82%
7. Focus of director's title	SOC	13/20	65%
8. Focus of extra-agency persons involved	SOC	11/17	65%
9. Minimum education required	Bachelor's	23/25	92%
10. Major area of undergraduate study	No preference	12/24	50%
11. Previous job experience required	yes	18/24	75%
12. Type(s) of work location	Exclusively in CO, FAC, or COM	13/25	50%
Students:			
13. Both H and NH served	yes	23/27	85%
14. All age groups served	yes	26/27	96%
15. Records maintained on types of student placements	no	22/27	82%
16. Records kept on students' post-placement status	no	24/27	89%

Note. ED=educational
SOC=social
H=handicapped
NH=nonhandicapped
CO=central office
FAC=facility
COM=community

A majority of the states (21 of 27) indicated that collaboration with other agencies was an "extremely important" component of their transition programs, while only 5 of 27 said collaboration was "somewhat important" and only one said it was of "little importance." In conjunction, almost half (13 of 27) indicated that collaboration occurs with three types of agencies, i.e., educational, social, vocational, rather than with any single agency (3 of 27) or any combination of two types (11 of 27). Sixty-three percent of all states indicated that they collaborated with agencies that provided either mental health, occupational therapy, and/or developmental disabilities services for handicapped students.

There was no majority response with regard to sharing and exchanging of records between agencies. Of 25 respondents, 32 percent indicated that all types of records, (i.e., educational, medical, psychological, etc.). were routinely shared and 36 percent stated that only educational transcripts were routinely shared. Seven of the remaining 8 states (28%) stated that student records, regardless of type, were not routinely shared.

Most states (22 of 27) had a director to oversee the program. Two of the states indicated that the directors of their programs were employees of another agency. The directors' titles in 13 of 20 programs tended to reflect a social focus, where only 4 of 20 reflected education and 3 of 20 reflected a vocational focus. Examples of titles reflecting a social focus were "Chief of Aftercare and Community Services", "Human Services Program Specialist", and "Community Reentry Coordinator."

Some states indicated that persons outside the agency were involved in the transition process. Once again, those persons reflected either one or some combination of three areas of focus: education, social services, and vocation. Eleven of 17 states indicated that such persons represented only one of the areas, with ten of those naming a social services person. The remaining states indicated that persons outside the agency represented two separate areas (3 of 17) or all three areas (3 of 17).

The minimum level of education required for transition agents was a bachelor's degree in 23 of 25 programs. Only 2 of 25 states reported minimum levels of training other than a bachelor's degree. One required only a high school diploma, while the other required a master's degree. The majority response with regard to the major area of undergraduate study (e.g., educationally-related, social services, or criminal justice) for those requiring a bachelor's degree was no preference (12 of 24). The remaining twelve programs indicated that either one specific area of undergraduate study was desired (7 of 12) or one of several areas (5 of 12).

Eighteen of 24 respondents indicated that some degree of previous experience (e.g., one, two, five years) was required for the job. Concerning work location for transition agents, respondents indicated that persons worked either exclusively in a central office, individual facility, or the community in general (13 of 26), in a combination of two of these sites (8 of 26), or in all three sites (5 of 26).

The final set of program characteristics dealt with (a) students served by the transition programs, and (b) whether records were maintained on types of student placements and status of student placements over intervals of time. Most programs (23 of 27) served both handicapped and nonhandicapped adjudicated students. An even greater number (26 of 27) provided transitional services to all age groups of adjudicated students.

Relatively few (5 of 27) of the states having programs maintained records on the various types of student placements upon transition. Thus, 22 of 27 programs (81 percent) did not maintain any records. Similarly, most (24 of 27) did not keep records on students' post-placement status over intervals of time, (e.g., 0 to 3 months, 4 to 6 months, etc.). It is important to mention that the data maintained by those states that kept records were quite limited, (i.e., some states accounted for some handicapped students' placements but did not account for others).

Types of Transition Programs

Recent literature suggests using a comprehensive approach to transitional services. Several authors (Webb & Maddox 1986; 57; Wolford 1987) agree that successful and effective transition programming should accommodate students' needs in three areas: (a) educational; (b) social; and (c) vocational. Using this comprehensive approach as a basis, a final interest in the present study was the delineation of the various types or patterns of transition programs.

It was posited that the different types of transition programs could be defined by determining the various patterns of strengths and weaknesses across the three areas (i.e., educational, social, vocational) for each program. Programs displaying similar patterns would comprise a particular type of program. For example, transition programs that are exceedingly strong in their social and vocational emphases, but yet are very weak in their educational perspective could constitute one type or pattern of transition program. On the other hand, programs that are very strong in their social emphasis, but yet demonstrate great weakness in accommodating students' needs in educational and vocational areas could comprise another type or pattern of transition program.

In fact, a quick calculation reveals a total of six different patterns that could be generated using various combinations of "strong" or "weak" across the educational, social, and vocational areas. The investigators speculated that the ideal, most effective transition program would be represented by a pattern having strong emphases across all three areas. As program success is related to different patterns of transition programs in future research, this ideal pattern may not necessarily be the most effective.

In an effort to delineate the patterns of transition programs, only those survey items that resulted in educational, social, and/or vocational response categories were selected for this part of the analysis. Four survey items were selected: (a) program goals, (b) director's title, (c) extra-agency persons involved, and (d) agencies in collaboration. Each state's positive responses to these four survey items were then tallied three separate times—with respect to educational, social, and vocational foci. Percentages were then calculated for the tallies across the three areas. Table 3 provides the results of this analysis.

TABLE 3

State Transition Programs Characterized by Percentage of Educational, Social, and Vocational Responses to Selected Survey Items

State	Educational	Social	Vocational
Alabama	75	75	50
Arkansas	25	50	0
California	25	75	50
Colorado	25	100	25
Delaware	25	75	25
Florida	75	25	50
Georgia	50	75	25
Hawaii	25	50	50
Kansas	50	25	50
Kentucky	50	50	75
Maine	50	25	50
Maryland	50	75	50
Mississippi	75	50	25
Montana	25	50	25
Nebraska	50	75	25
Nevada	75	75	0
New Hampshire	50	75	75
New York	75	75	50
North Carolina	50	75	25
Oklahoma	0	75	0
Pennsylvania	25	25	25
Rhode Island	50	100	50
Tennessee	25	75	25
Virginia	25	50	0
Washington	0	100	75
West Virginia	75	100	25
Wisconsin	75	75	50

Patterns were defined by the different combinations of "high" and "low" positive responses to the three areas using the percentages that were calculated. The criteria for "high" positive responses to each of educational, social, and vocational survey variables was set at 51 percent or higher, which was indicative of a clear majority of positive responses. Accordingly, "low" positive responses was defined as less than 51 percent. Each state was then characterized as having "high" or "low" positive responses across educational, social, and vocational survey items based on these criteria.

Examination of the resulting characterizations for each of the 28 transition programs revealed that 23 (82 percent) of the programs could be represented by one of three different patterns. The type containing the largest number (N=11) of programs displaying similar patterns of positive responses had a low-educational, high-social, and low-vocational positive response pattern (See Figure 1). A second type which included seven programs showed a low-educational, low-social, and low-vocational positive response pattern (See Figure 2). The third pattern containing five programs showed a high-educational, high-social, and low-vocational positive response pattern (See Figure 3).

Figure 1
Low ED - High SOC - Low VOC Pattern
For Transition Programs (N=11)

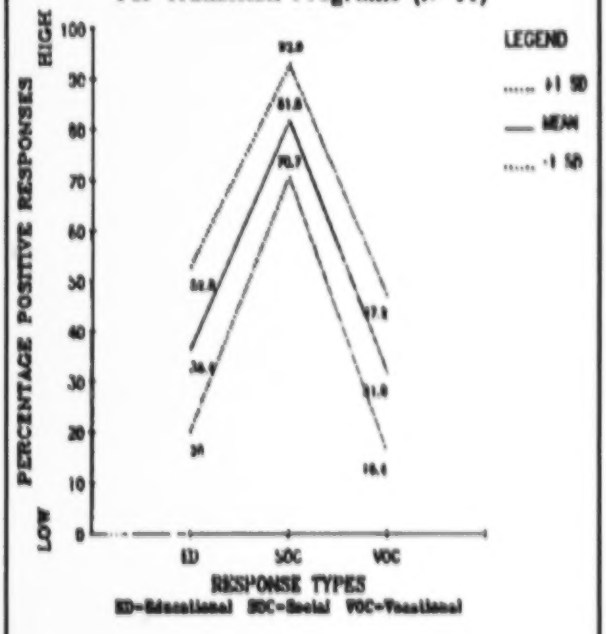


Figure 2
Low ED - Low SOC - Low VOC Pattern
For Transition Programs (N=7)

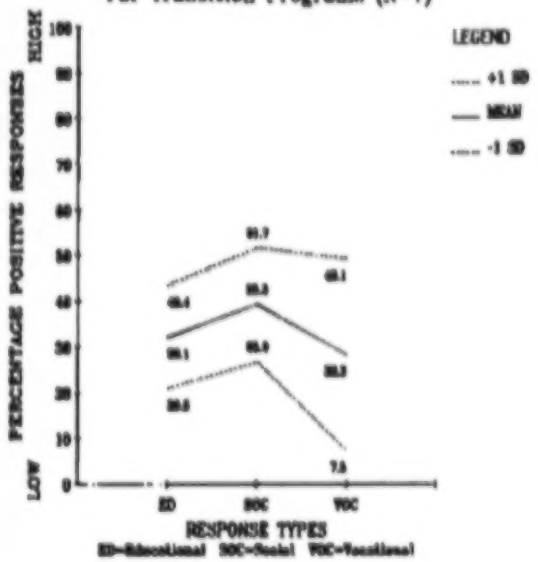
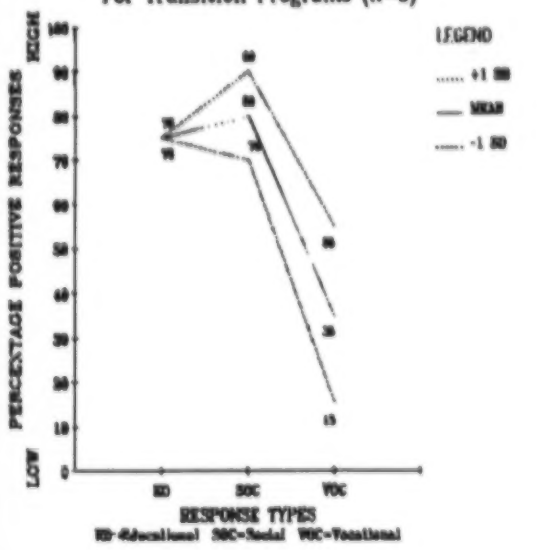


Figure 3
High ED - High SOC - Low VOC Pattern
For Transition Programs (N=5)



This analysis reveals there are clusters of states that portray similar patterns of high and low positive responses to the educational, social and vocational survey items for transition programs used in this study. Little more can be concluded about the patterns of transition programs produced with this sample. Care must be taken in making inferences from the patterns delineated in this study. For example, to conclude that high positive responses in the educational area means that a program has a strong emphasis in education would not be a legitimate or accurate inference at this point. Continual refinement and development of a more comprehensive set of survey items that more accurately reflect a program's emphasis in the educational, social, and vocational areas should allow researchers to make important inferences.

Discussion

A number of findings from the present survey can be related to previous literature on transition programs and have implications for practice. An interesting observation was that educational, social, and vocational categorical responses emerged for several of the survey items. This appears to be in keeping with the comprehensive approach to transition programming that is highly favored today. With respect to educational, social, and vocational program goals, more research will be needed to determine if states that declare such goals actually have procedures for implementation of these goals.

Webb and Maddox (1987) express concern over the problem of sharing and exchanging of educational records between agencies when adjudicated youth are transitioned from the correctional institution to the local public school and vice versa. Data in the current study offer some validation for this concern. Less than one-third of our respondents indicated that all types of appropriate student records, (i.e., school, medical, psychological, etc.,) were shared on a routine basis.

The large number of respondents (50 percent) indicating no preference to the type of undergraduate study for transition personnel was an area of particular concern. The implications of this are far-reaching for the student. If there is no preference for employing transition agents trained in fields of education, social services, vocation, or any combination thereof, then persons trained in other skill areas (e.g., mechanical engineering, home economics, etc.) which bear no relationship with the skill requirements for transition programming are just as likely to occupy these positions. Though such persons may not be totally inept, certain skills such as having an awareness of handicapping conditions are necessary for a transition agent. In the specific case of operationalizing the goal of education in transition programming, personnel lacking some degree of training or knowledge in special education may fail to recognize when a handicapped offender has not been properly placed in a local school special education program upon reentry or that

records indicating a need for continued services have not been properly forwarded. It is entirely possible that inappropriately trained transition personnel could have and adverse effect on the quality of transition programming.

Finally, though much research is still needed, the authors believe the analyses on patterns of transition programs offer an important contribution for future research efforts, especially with regard to determining which programs or types of programs are more effective than others. The authors realize that investigating transition program effectiveness in this study would be an impossibility when it was discovered that more than 80 percent of the responding state correction agencies operating transition programs failed to maintain records on numbers and types of student placement upon reentry and students' post-placement satus. Even though it was found that most (78 percent) of the states responding had formalized transition programs, no conclusions can be made at this point about their effectiveness.

The need for improved efforts to provide proper and sustained follow-up for students in transition cannot be overemphasized. Only when accurate records on numbers of students transitioned are kept and additional follow-up on transitioned handicapped offenders is provided can progress be realized in transition programs. Merely acknowledging that a transition program exists and that procedures have been developed for accomplishing transition is not enough. Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford (1985) comment, and rightly so, that "simply providing a referral and facilitating a placement are often insufficient support efforts for the reentering offender."

Summary

Relatively little information is available to date on the number of transition programs that are currently being operated by state youth correction agencies nationwide or the characteristics that tend to distinguish these programs. Through a nationwide survey, data was collected that allowed for a description of such transition programs with respect to program goals and other program components, transition personnel in charge of operating the programs, and students served by the programs. Additionally, through analysis of patterns of positive responses to survey items relating to transition programs, various types of programs were discussed. Further research is needed to ascertain the quality of transition programming nationwide for incarcerated handicapped youth.

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Biography

Kathleen S. Whittier is Assistant Professor of Special Education at State University of New York at Plattsburgh. In addition to transitional services, her research interests include relationships among siblings when handicapping conditions are present. She earned her doctorate at the University of Virginia in 1987.

Joe P. Sutton is Assistant Professor and Chairman of the Special Education Department at Bob Jones University, Greenville, South Carolina. He has research interests in transition programs for handicapped offenders and teacher effectiveness in special education settings. He completed a Ph.D. in special education at the University of Virginia in 1989.

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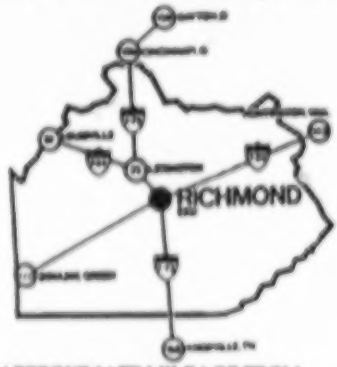

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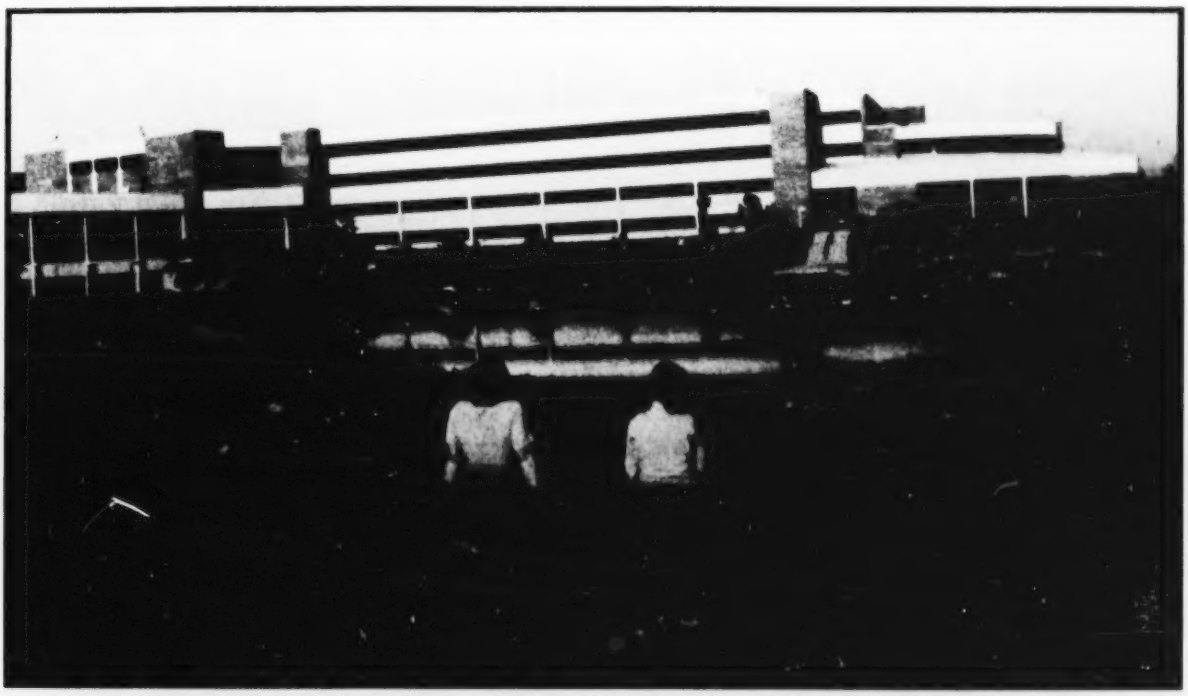

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